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ABSTRACT

The Advertising, Part 2 section of the Proceedings contains the following 8 papers: "Made in Taiwan and the U.S.A.: A Study of Gender Roles in Two Nations' Magazine Advertisements" (Kim E. Karloff and Yi-ching Lee); "The Impact of Culture on Political Advertising: A Comparison between the U.S. and Korean Newspaper Ads" (Chun-Sik Kim and Yoo-Kyoung Kim); "A Content Analysis of Internet Banner Advertising: Focusing on Korean and U.S. Cultural Differences" (Hwi-Man Chung and Euijin Ahn); "Sneak Attack: Exploring the Effects of Nike and Reebok Sponsorship on Two College Athletic Programs" (Jan S. Slater and Carla V. Lloyd); "Qualitative Evaluation of Print Ads by Assessors Using the Creative Product Semantic Scale" (Alisa White Coleman and Bruce L. Smith); "A Study of the Facets of the 'Country-of-Origin' Image and Its Comparison among Different Countries" (Jang-Sun Hwang); "International Advertising Strategies in China--A Worldwide Survey of Foreign Advertisers" (Jiafei Yin); and "Does Reputation Management Reap Rewards? A Path Analysis of Corporate Reputation Advertising's Impacts on Brand Attitudes and Purchase Decisions" (Jongmin Park, Lisa Lyon, and Glen T. Cameron). (RS)

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MADE IN TAIWAN AND THE U.S.A.: A STUDY OF GENDER ROLES IN TWO NATIONS' MAGAZINE ADVERTISEMENTS

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MADE IN TAIWAN AND THE U.S.A.: A STUDY OF GENDER ROLES IN TWO NATIONS' MAGAZINE ADVERTISEMENTS

Since the 1960s, there has been considerable discussion concerning whether international companies should adapt or standardize their foreign advertising messages. Authors such as Erik Elinder[1] and Arthur Fatt[2] have recommended that advertisers use standardized campaigns because the needs and values of international customers were becoming increasingly alike.

By 1983, Theodore Levitt claimed that people everywhere were becoming alike because of a technological imperative that brings them together. Levitt also suggested there is a "global village" and that "the world's needs and desires have been irrevocably homogenized."[3] Advocates of a "standardized" approach believe that advertisers who develop just one set of advertisements for their multinational markets will realize benefits such as reduced costs, increased control over advertising content, stronger brand images, and simplified strategic planning.

Other scholars, however, question the standardized advertising campaign. Greg Harris argued that standardized ad campaigns are inappropriate for most brands; the few exceptions either demand an "international image"[4] or are best promoted by ads with low information content. For example, the basic content and images of Marlboro and Coca-Cola advertisements are unchanged from country to country.[5] A policy of standardized

[1] Erik Elinder, "How International Can European Advertising Be?" *Journal of Marketing* 29 (April 1965): 7-11.
[2] Arthur C. Fatt, "The Danger of 'Local' International Advertising," *Journal of Marketing* 31 (January 1967): 60-62.
[3] Theodore Levitt, "The Globalization of Markets," *Harvard Business Review* 61 (May/June 1983): 93.
[4] Greg Harris, "The Globalization of Advertising," *International Journal of Advertising* 3, no. 3 (1984): 223-234.
[5] William L. James and John S. Hill, "International Advertising Messages: To Adapt or Not to Adapt (That Is the Question)," *Journal of Advertising Research* 31, no. 3 (June/July 1991): 65.

advertising must assume a high degree of cultural and economic homogeneity between countries.

Even though the basic product may serve essentially the same need in each country, Robert T. Green et al. suggest that cultural and environmental factors do influence the characteristics of the product that people emphasize in their purchases. A strong family orientation in the culture may necessitate the use of family appeals. A relatively low level of income could emphasize "the functional qualities" of the product being advertised, while a high level of income, which implies that all basic needs are being satisfied, may require an emphasis upon the more "esoteric aspects" of the product.[6]

There is no doubt that differences among nations are still great, and that these differences should be recognized in marketing and planning. And yet, standardized advertising may permit substantial cost savings, as well as greater consistency in dealing with customers. If good ideas are rare, and if some of them have universal appeal, they should be used as widely as possible.

All of this adds up to Robert D. Buzzell's conclusion that both the pros and the cons of standardization in international marketing programs should be considered, and that a company's decisions should be based on estimated overall revenues and costs. Each case must be considered on its own merits. Any slogans and formulas are not very helpful guides to intelligent ad planning.[7]

In the past, cultural differences between nations generally led a multinational company to view its strategy in each country as a local problem. Buzzell suggests that if marketing strategy is to be designed with a multinational perspective, companies must make provisions for line and staff marketing positions at appropriate levels. There is a trend among leading companies, such as Hoover, Singer, and General Electric, toward

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[6] Robert T. Green, William H. Cunningham and Isabella C.M. Cunningham, "The Effectiveness of Standardized Global Advertising," *Journal of Advertising* 4, no. 3 (1975): 28.
[7] Robert D. Buzzell, "Can You Standardize Multinational Marketing?" *Harvard Business Review* 46, no. 6 (November/December 1968): 113.

establishment of marketing coordinators or international committees for at least partial centralization of management.

Finding the right balance between standardized and localized strategies, however, is not an easy task.

Cross-Cultural Studies on Advertising

Over the past decade, a number of studies have made valuable contributions to the understanding of cross-cultural differences in the ways ads depict cultural values. Some of these studies dealt with advertising expression across cultures that have very dissimilar value systems, such as the East and West. Other researchers analyzed advertising expressions in countries that have less obvious cultural differences, such as Britain and the United States.

Barbara Mueller's study on the reflections of culture in Japanese and American advertising confirms that advertising tends to reflect the prevalent values of the culture in which it exists. A high use of product merit appeals were found in American ads. Product merit appeal is considered one of the more modern and Westernized of appeals. Its focus is on the information of product characteristics, comparisons, and recommendations.

On the other hand, Japanese advertisements more often involved soft-sell, elderly/traditional, status, and product merit appeals. Status appeals suggest the use of a particular product will improve some inherit quality of the user. Soft-sell appeal means "human emotional sentiments are emphasized over clear-cut product-related appeals."[8] The high use of soft-sell appeals results from the long-held value of indirect, implicit and nonverbal communication forms prevalent in Japanese culture.

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[8] Barbara Mueller, "Reflections of Culture: An Analysis of Japanese and American Advertising Appeals," *Journal of Advertising Research* (June/July 1987): 53.

A study by Abhijit Biswas et al.[9] on advertisements in France and the United States noted that even though these two Western countries basically share the same value system, there are differences in the purpose of communication and the context to which their cultures belong. These differences are reflected in their print advertisements. The study concluded that French advertisements resorted to more emotional appeals than did American ads and that American ads contained more information cues than the French ads.

In a 1989 study, David K. Tse found that there are different values in the print advertisements of the three Chinese societies, Hong Kong, the People's Republic of China, and Taiwan. Though the three societies bear a common ethnic heritage and use the same language, differences in socioeconomic standards, political ideologies, and advertising philosophies will likely cause or reflect differences in the values consumers seek to enact with their purchases and, accordingly, the ways that advertisers choose to communicate to consumers.[10] These studies indicate that cultural barriers do exist and cross-cultural study in advertising expression is a growing and important area of research.

Besides studying cultural reflection in advertising, one other often noted subject in advertising research is in the portrayal of gender roles. This study seeks to examine the roles of men and women depicted in advertising in a cross-section of magazine categories in the United States and to compare the roles of men and women depicted in advertising from similar categories of magazines from Taiwan.

Five different magazine categories were selected from both countries: news/general interest, business, entertainment, women's fashion magazine and men's fashion magazine.[11] The classification scheme developed by Alice E. Courtney and Sarah Wernick Lockeretz in their study of women's portrayals in magazine advertisements in 1971 is used

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[9] Abhijit Biswas, Janeen E. Olsen and Valerie Carlet, "A Comparison of Print Advertisements from the United States and France," *Journal of Advertising* 21, no. 4 (December 1992): 73-81.

[10] David K. Tse, Russell W. Belk and Nan Zhou, "Becoming a Consumer Society: A Longitudinal and Cross-Cultural Content Analysis of Print Ads from Hong Kong, the People's Republic of China, and Taiwan," *Journal of Consumer Research* 15, no. 4 (March 1989): 458.

in analyzing the content of the magazine advertisements.[12] This classification scheme includes three different categories: working roles, non-working roles and product types.[13] Each gender role is coded according to the activity and product of the man/men or woman/women in the advertisements. Comparisons suggest the different cultural values advertisers place on the depiction of men and women in both countries.

Advertising is not just a message about goods and services but a source of information about values, beliefs, style and life activities of a given culture. According to Marshal McLuhan:

> Historians and archaeologists will one day discover that the ads of our times are the richest and most faithful daily reflections that any society ever made of its entire range of activities.[14]

As a form of cultural expression, advertising reflects the existing social conditions. Therefore, cross-cultural study on advertising's depiction of gender roles should illustrate cultural differences between countries. Most current studies are based only on U.S. advertising, leaving open the question of cultural influence on advertising's gender role portrayals. This study offers an analysis of gender roles in advertising through cross-cultural comparison which is still lacking in contemporary literature.

This study also examines the distributions of standardized and localized advertising in Taiwanese and U.S. magazines. The results could be useful to multinational companies in designing their market strategies and to media scholars in their pursuits of more truly global advertising scholarship.

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[11] Magazines in this study included *Time, Business Week, Entertainment Weekly, Elle and GQ* from the United States, and *Global Views Monthly, Business Weekly, Premier,* and the Mandarin versions of *Elle* and *GQ* from Taiwan. Mandarin is the offical language of Taiwan.

[12] Alice E. Courtney and Sarah W. Lockeretz, "A Woman's Place: An Analysis of the Roles Portrayed by Women in Magazine Advertisements," *Journal of Marketing Research* 53 (February 1971): 92-95.

[13] According to Courtney and Lockeretz's study, working roles include high-level business executives, professional, entertainer, professional sports, sales, middle-level business, semi-professional, nonprofessional white collar, blue collar, soldiers, and police. Non-working roles are family, recreational, and decorative roles. Product types include cleaning, food, and beauty products, drugs, furniture, clothing, home appliances, charity, travel, cars, alcoholic beverages, cigarettes, banks, industrial products, entertainment, media, and institutional ads.

Advertising: The Distorted Mirror

Researchers' concerns about gender roles portrayed in ads are based on the belief that advertising influences a society's perceptions. Advertising has been called the "most potent influence in adapting and changing habits and modes of life, affecting what we eat and the work and play of the whole nation."[15] McLuhan also has said that advertising reflects our "collective dreams."[16] Daily, we are exposed to printed ads in magazines, in newspapers, on billboards, in bus shelters and so forth. The consequence of exposure to a large amount of advertised messages is that our behaviors, values, perceptions, beliefs and gender-role attitudes are dominated by advertisements.

Studies and criticisms of gender roles in advertising indicate that this "active role in directing human behavior"[17] has probably stepped far out of line in directing female and male behavior according to stereotypical sex-defined roles. According to Michael L. Klassen et al.:

> Advertisements depict for us not necessarily how we actually behave as men and women but how we think men and women behave. This depiction serves the social purpose of convincing us that this is how men and women are, or want to be, or should be, not only in relation to themselves but in relation to each other.[18]

Betty Friedan's "The Feminine Mystique" aroused a wave of feminism in the United States during the 1960s. Friedan found that magazines reflected and perpetuated a limited lifestyle for U.S. women by portraying motherhood and the care of home and

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[14] Marshal McLuhan, *Understanding Media* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964): 14. And as quoted in Katherine T. Frith's "Undressing the Ad: Reading Culture in Advertising" in book by same title, Katherine T. Frith, ed. (New York: Peter Lang Publishing, Inc., 1997): 1.

[15] Harold W. Fox and Stanley R. Renas, "Stereotypes of Women in the Media and Their Impact on Women's Careers," *Human Resource Management* (Spring 1977): 27.

[16] McLuhan, *Understanding Media.*

[17] Sheila Hogan Mulcahy, "Female Images in Women's and General Interest Magazine Advertising, 1905-1970," (Masters Thesis, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1980): 2.

[18] Michael L. Klassen, Cynthia R. Jasper and Anne M. Schwartz, "Men and Women: Images of Their Relationships in Magazine Advertisements," *Journal of Advertising Research* 33, no. 2 (March/April 1993): 30.

husband as a woman's life and goal.[19] In the 1970s, Erving Goffman studied the portrayal of women in magazine advertising. His findings indicated that ads depict highly ritualized versions of the parent-child relationship, with women treated largely as children and that this diminishment is what is damaging to women.[20]

Alice E. Courtney and Thomas W. Whipple examined sex role portrayals in ads in the 1980s and concluded that the portrayals of women and men in print advertising suggest: a woman's place is in the home; women do not make important decisions or do important things; women are dependent and need men's protection; and men regard women primarily as sexual objects, not as people. Men are also stereotyped, but in reverse of the way women are portrayed, according to Courtney and Whipple.[21]

These studies claim that advertisements depict men and women in certain narrow stereotypes, and that there is nothing wrong in depicting certain narrowly defined roles for men and women in advertising when the nature of advertising simply mirrors that which is in society. But, according to Del Hawkins et. al., advertising is believed to reinforce the notion that those narrowed roles are "proper," "best," or "natural."[22]

Richard W. Pollay has summarized the criticisms and concerns of various scholars about advertising's "unintended consequences." He suggests that "simplistic, symbolic stereotypes, chosen for their clarity and conciseness, serve as poor models and inhibit sympathetic understanding of individual differences."[23]

Defenders of advertising claim that advertising simply mirrors what is already presented in society,[24] and need not offer "proportional representation."[25] Although this

[19] Betty Friedan, *The Feminine Mystique* (New York: W.W. Norton and Co., 1963).
[20] Erving Goffman, *Gender Advertisements* (New York: Harper, 1970).
[21] Alice E. Courtney and Thomas W. Whipple, *Sex Stereotyping in Advertising* (Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1983): 14.
[22] Del Hawkins and Kenneth Coney, "Advertising and Differentiated Sex Roles in Contemporary American Society," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 4 (Winter 1976): 418-428.
[23] Richard W. Pollay, "The Distorted Mirror: Reflections on the Unintended Consequences of Advertising," *Journal of Marketing* 50 (April 1986): 18-36.
[24] Courtney and Whipple, *Sex Stereotyping in Advertising*.
[25] Morris B. Holbrook, "Mirror, Mirror on the Wall, What's Unfair in the Reflections on Advertising?" *Journal of Marketing* 51 (July 1987): 95-103.

point is arguable, one might expect that advertising should at least portray gender roles in the reflection of the status quo. With the increasing number of women working outside the home, studies have found that the portrayals haven't changed as women's social status has improved.[26]

In Taiwan, women also are bound by traditional social expectations. A good woman means a good mother and wife who takes care of her family well, regardless of the achievements she might have in her career. In the United States, individualism is more highly valued. Society provides women a wider space which means that a woman can be successful either being a housewife or a career woman. Attitudes toward appropriate roles for women differ among cultures. The difference between countries on the gender roles portrayed in their advertising, then, might be expected and anticipated.

Statement of the Problem

Most contemporary research typically examines only the gender roles portrayed in U.S. advertising. Studies on cross-cultural comparisons of gender role portrayals are still rare. In 1988, Mary C. Gilly studied sex roles in television ads in the U.S., Australia and Mexico.[27] She found that certain types of gender stereotyping were consistent across all three countries. Women were portrayed as youthful more often than men, and men were more likely to be portrayed in independent roles, whereas women were portrayed in roles relative to others. However, in terms of overall gender equity in the ads, the Australian commercials were deemed superior to the U.S. ads. Gilly found the sex role stereotyping in the Mexican commercials to be the greatest amongst the three nations.

Since differences do exist in the ways ads depict gender roles among countries, a cross-cultural study is a much-needed addition to the literature, particularly in Taiwan and the United States. For Taiwan, as an Eastern country, it was assumed that the

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[26] Sheila Hogan Mulcahy, "Female Images in Women's and General Interest Magazine Advertisements, 1905-1970."

advertisements would be more likely to appeal to traditional values, more so than Western ads. A traditional society, like Taiwan, is bound by the cultural standards established by old customs and conventions such as family orientation and respect of elders, while modern society is deemed culturally dynamic and oriented to change and innovation.[28] This study also provides an understanding of cultural differences among the East and the West.

Justification for Selecting Taiwan and Study Limitations

The advertising industry in Taiwan began to blossom when the Taiwanese government claimed its new economic policy in 1985, allowing foreign corporations, including advertising agencies, to invest in domestic business.[29] Through this internationalization of economic policy, international brands were introduced by the incoming foreign advertisers which stimulated the ways domestic ad agencies promoted their products. According to the 1991-1992 R.O.C. Advertising Report, the annual advertising expenditure in Taiwan in 1991 was about $19 billion (U.S. dollars). It was ranked the 21st of the highest ad expenditure nations in the world.[30]

The United States has great influence over the world's advertising business. A comparison of advertising in Taiwan, where the ad industry just began its rapid growth, and the U.S. advertising giant will undoubtedly enhance the development of Taiwanese advertising. How U.S. companies design their advertising strategies can be a reference that might also stimulate the improvement of the Taiwanese ad industry.

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[27] Mary C. Gilly, "Sex Roles in Advertising: A Comparison of Television Advertisements in Australia, Mexica, and the United States," *Journal of Marketing* 52, no. 2 (April 1988): 75-85.
[28] Hong Cheng and John C. Schweitzer, "Cultural Values Reflected in Chinese and U.S. Television Commercials," 29.
[29] Tong-Min Lai, *Ten Years of Advertising: 1978-1987* (Taipei: China Times, 1989).
[30] Yi-Chi Liu et. al, *R.O.C. Advertising Yearbook 1991-1992* (R.O.C. Advertising Yearbook Compiling Committee, 1992): 20.

Among the three Chinese societies, China is a socialist nation where most advertisements still require governmental approval.[31] This study examines the differences of advertising portrayals of gender roles within similar economic markets; therefore, China is not considered in this study. Hong Kong is accepted as the most Westernized of the three Chinese societies, due to its British influence for almost 100 years. The advertising in Hong Kong is expected to be similar to that of Western culture, and also is excluded from this study.

After the government lifted its 38-year-old martial law in 1989, Taiwan has enjoyed social prosperity and is regarded as one of five economic miracles in Asia. It is seen as a newly industrialized country. With the economic growth, advertising takes a more important role that ever. Moreover, even though China has not yet completely loosened its restrictions on economic policy, Taiwan's large population is regarded by Western entrepreneurs as an undeveloped virgin land.

Methodology

In employing content analysis, this study will follow the classification scheme developed by Courtney and Lockeretz in 1971 in a study of women's roles portrayed in magazine advertisements. The classification scheme includes the examination of several categories: working roles, non-working activities, and product type. The study incorporates Courtney and Lockeretz's classification scheme and analyzes how men and women were portrayed in these three categories. We then compared the differences between Taiwan's and the United States' portrayals of gender in their magazine advertisements.

While previous studies on cross-cultural advertisements have confirmed that cultural differences may result in the way men and women are portrayed in ads, this study

[31] Tse, Belk and Zhou, 460.

notes how the cultural differences might affect gender role portrayals in Taiwanese and U.S. magazine advertisements specifically.

Courtney and Lockeretz's classification scheme has been used in other research studies. Belkaoui and Belkaoui in 1976, and Sullivan and O'Connor in 1988 both adapted Courtney and Lockeretz's scheme in their research on the portrayals of women in print advertisements. Also, in cross-cultural studies, there is Wiles and Tjernlund's research on the comparison of role portrayals of men and women in magazine ads in the United States and Sweden.

In Courtney and Lockeretz's study, magazines directed toward both male and female readers were analyzed for stereotypical portrayals. Seven magazines, published the week of April 18, 1970, were selected: *Life, Look, Newsweek, The New Yorker, Saturday Review, Time,* and *U.S. News and World Report*. Women's magazines were not included because they were directed primarily toward women as housewives, regardless of their other life roles.

Sampling a total of 729 advertisements found in the magazines, Courtney and Lockeretz coded each ad by product type (i.e. cleaning products, drugs, furniture, clothing, etc.), the number and gender of all adults in the ads, and their occupations (i.e. high-level executives, entertainers, sales, etc.), or activities (i.e. family, recreational and decorative). Children and teens were not included nor were crowd scenes.

According to Courtney and Lockeretz's study, 312 ads showed one or more adults; 397 men and 278 women were pictured in the ads. In the occupation and non-working activity category, there is a gap between the portrayals of men and women. Forty-five percent of males were shown in working roles such as high-level executives, professional, white collar workers, etc., while only nine percent of females were shown in this category. Among the women shown in working roles, 58 percent of them were portrayed as entertainers. Courtney and Lockeretz concluded that the distribution of occupational roles in the ads reinforced the feminists' impression that women were rarely shown engaged in important activities outside the home.

In the product category, their findings indicated that women were shown in only a limited way: they took care of themselves and their homes. For major household buying decisions, such as furniture purchasing, women were usually joined by men.

Magazine Selection and Sampling

In the study at hand the contemporary gender role portrayals in Taiwanese and U.S. magazine advertisements are analyzed. Five different magazine categories were employed: news/general interest; entertainment; business; women's fashion; and men's fashion. The U.S. magazines included *Time* (news/general interest), *Entertainment Weekly* (entertainment), *Business Week* (business), *Elle* (women's fashion), and *GQ* (men's fashion). The Taiwanese magazines consisted of *Global Views Monthly* (news/general interest), *Premier* (entertainment), *Business Weekly* (business), Mandarin version of *Elle* (women's fashion), and the Mandarin version of *GQ* (men's fashion). The listed magazines which published in the year of 1997 were selected. Specialized magazines, such as *Men's Health, Rolling Stone* and *Golf* magazines were not included because they serve a defined special interest. News/general interest, entertainment and business magazines are more likely than specialized magazines to target both male and female readership. These magazines provide an overarching view of the visual images being portrayed in the mainstream press of both nations. Fashion magazines were included because their exclusive target of each gender reflect the attitudes toward men and women within each culture.

The magazines listed above include both monthly and weekly publications. Monthlies, such as *Elle, GQ, Premier* and *Global Views Monthly*, were selected from every other month of 1997, starting with January 1997. Weeklies, such as *Time*, were randomly selected one issue from every other month, also starting in January 1997.

Following the Courtney and Lockertz classifications, each advertisement of a half page or more, which included one or more adults, was examined. Also, the nature of each ad had to be for the advertising of products; those ads that promote programs, movies and entertainment shows were excluded from the study. Children, teens, cartoon/comic characters and portraits were also excluded. Like Courtney and Lockeretz's work, crowd scenes are also excluded because it is nearly impossible to accurately count or identify an individual's role in such ads.

Coding

According to the classification scheme developed by Courtney and Lockeretz, each ad was coded by one or more content categories, including the number and gender of adults portrayed, the category of the product being advertised, and the adults' occupations or non-working activities. The content categories follow:

Sex/Gender: male, female

Product categories: cleaning products, food products, beauty products, drugs, furniture, clothing, home appliances, charity, travel, cars, alcoholic beverages, cigarettes, banks, industrial products, entertainment/media, institutional ads

Occupations: high-level business executives, professional, entertainers/professional sports, sales/middle-level business/semi-professional, non-professional white collar, blue collar labor, soldiers/police

Non-working activities: family, recreational, decorative

The current study used Courtney and Lockeretz as a model. Some of their content cagetories were updated. For example, in the product category, the cleaning products, furniture, and industrial products were taken out and we added home tech, business tech, jewelry, and books. No ads on household cleaning products were found in the selected Taiwanese and U.S. magazines. Personal cleaning products such as shampoo and facial cleaner are included in beauty products. No furniture ads were found in the sampled magazines either. We took out the industrial product category and added business tech because a business tech category is more suitable to the inclusion of such products as computers, printers, and computer software that were found in today's ads. Jewelry was added because there wasn't a suitable category for products like watches, rings and necklaces in the original Courtney and Lockeretz classification scheme.

For the occupation category, we adopted the standard occupational classifications from the Bureau of Labor Statistics.[32]

There were a total of 581 advertisements in the U.S. magazines and 432 advertisements in the Taiwanese magazines that fulfilled the coding criteria. The number of men and women portrayed in either working roles or non-working roles was counted, as well as the product type they promoted. An example of Courtney and Lockeretz's and the current coding procedure:

An advertisement for Zyrtec pictured a man and a woman dancing.

This advertisment is coded as one male and one female in recreational (non-working) roles. And since Zyrtec is a medicine for relieving allergies, it is also coded as one male and one female in the category of heath-care/drugs.

Another example:

A picture of a Marlboro Lights cigarette ad showing one cowboy sitting beneath a tree.

This advertisement is coded as one male in an agricultural-related occupation (working role) advertising a cigarette product. Following the coding procedure, the number of men and women portrayed in each of the categories was counted. The following sections show the results and the differences in gender role portrayals found in the Taiwan and U.S. magazine advertisements.

[32] U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Occupational Employment Statistics, *List of OES Occupations*, (information online); available from http:/stats.bls.gov/oes_stru.htm; Internet. Accessed Oct. 10, 1998.

Findings and Analysis

There were 432 ads in the Taiwanese magazines and 581 ads in the U.S. magazines that fulfilled the coding criteria. In the U.S. magazines there were 878 adults in the advertisements that fit the criteria. Of these, 492 (56 percent) were males and 386 (44 percent) were females. In the Taiwanese magazines, 324 (49 percent) were of males and 337 (51 percent) were of females. Overall, the U.S. advertisers seemed to prefer using male models in their advertisements while Taiwanese advertisers tended to use slightly more female models in the ads.

Using the classification scheme developed by Courtney and Lockeretz, each male or female was coded in either working or non-working roles. Working roles include seven occupational categories and non-working roles are classified into three categories. The breakdown in terms of number and proportion of working and non-working roles shows a very small difference between the way the two nations treat the two genders in advertising. Generally, non-working roles, like recreational roles, and decorative roles, were depicted in greater numbers as compared to working roles in both genders within Taiwanese and U.S. ads (see Table 1).

More men (35.6 percent) were likely to be shown as workers in the U.S. ads than as workers in the Taiwan ads (28.4 percent). In comparison, women were almost equally depicted as workers in Taiwanese ads (17.2 percent) and in U.S. ads (15.5 percent). In the U.S. magazines, 64.4 percent of the males were shown in non-working roles, while in Taiwan 71.6 percent of the men were shown in non-working roles. This compares with 84.5 percent females in non-working roles in the American ads and 82.8 percent shown in non-working roles in Taiwan (see Table 1).

Table 1: Working Roles and Non-working Roles Shown in Taiwanese and U.S. Magazine Ads

	Taiwanese Magazines				U.S. magazines			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	number	%	number	%	number	%	number	%
Working Roles	92	28.4%	58	17.2%	175	35.6%	60	15.5%
Non-working roles	232	71.6%	279	82.8%	317	64.4%	326	84.5%
Total	324	100.0%	337	100.0%	492	100.0%	386	100.0%

* based on number of adults shown

Taiwanese Men and Women in Working Roles

In Taiwanese ads, 92 out of 324 males (28.4 percent) and 58 out of 337 females (17.2 percent) were depicted in working roles. Table 2 shows the number and percentages of working roles by gender in the Taiwanese ads. Data suggest that there is a significant difference between the way men and women were treated in these working roles.

In the managerial and administrative occupations category, men were shown more often than women. Only five women (8.6 percent) were shown in managerial and administrative occupations while 21 men (20.8 percent) were shown in a managerial role. When women appeared in managerial and administrative occupations, they were alone in the ads. However, when men were depicted in this role, they sometimes were accompanied by a female of another occupation inferior to them. For example, an Ansett Australia airline advertisement pictured one male in the first class cabin (managerial occupation) served by a female stewardess (service occupation).[33] Also, a Hewlett Packard printer advertisement showed one male manager (managerial occupation) sitting behind his desk, watching his employees (four males and three females in clerical occupations) doing their jobs.[34]

There were some other times that male managers were accompanied by females in non-working roles. An example is a Spring Resort Hotel advertisement. Two pictures were shown in this ad. One is of a man in a well-tailored suit standing in front of French windows in a hotel room and drinking red wine (managerial occupation). The other picture shows two women in a Jacuzzi (recreational role).[35] Not one female in a managerial occupation was found accompanied with a male of other occupational levels or non-working roles.

The Taiwanese magazines portrayed both men and women most often in the role of professional, paraprofessional, and technical occupations (men 44.6 percent; women 56.9 percent). Of the 33 women in this category, 23 (70 percent) are entertainers. Only six out of 50 men (12 percent) in professional roles are portrayed as entertainers; 12 are professional athletes and others include engineers, scientists, teachers, artists and journalists.

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[33] Ansett Australia airline ad, *Global Views Monthly*, 4 April 1997, 5.
[34] Hewlett Packard ad, *Business Weekly*, 6 October 1997, 16.
[35] Spring Resort Hotel ad, *Global Views Monthly*, 5 July 1997, 161.

In the sales occupation category, Taiwanese men were depicted more often than women (men 17.4 percent; women 5.2 percent). Male salepeople often represented business and automobile products, such as Compaq computers,[36] Epson printers,[37] and Mitsubishi motors.[38] On the contrary, both in the clerical and administrative occupations and the service occupation categories, women appeared more often than men. In the clerical and administrative occupations, women were usually the customer service representatives. For example, a Cosmos Bank ad shows a female clerk explaining the new loan plan to her customer.[39] In the service occupations, women usually appeared as waitresses. Of 58 working women in the ads, 11 (19 percent) were in clerical and administrative support roles and six (10.3 percent) were in service occupations. Only 9.8 percent of men were portrayed in clerical and administrative support roles and 3.3 percent were in service occupations (see Table 2).

In general, Taiwanese men were more likely to be portrayed in managerial and administrative occupations, and sales occupations, while women were portrayed more often in clerical and support occupations or service occupations. Of the 33 out of 58 working women seen in professional occupations, 23 were entertainers. Within these 23 female entertainers, 22 of them were shown as illustrations for women's products, such as cosmetics, shampoo, and clothing. For example, a series of MaxFactor SK-II cosmetics ads was presented by two Taiwanese actresses.[40] Data suggest that females in Taiwanese ads were portrayed either in very limited roles or far from the decision-making classes compared to their male counterparts.

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[36] The Compaq computer ad pictured a male salesperson holding a computer in his hands and smiling, *Business Weekly*, 6 January 1997, 18.
[37] The Epson color printer ad showed two male salespeople happy with their perfect business presentation, *Business Weekly*, 6 October 1997, 47.
[38] Mitsubishi Lancer ad showed a male salesperson sitting in the car introducing the new car's functions, *Business Weekly*, 24 January 1997, 43.
[39] Cosmos Bank ad, *Business Weekly*, 6 October 1997, 139.
[40] MaxFactor ad, *Elle*, January 1997, 10-13; April 1997, 12-13; July 1997, 10-13; October 1997, 10-11.

According to the data from The Department of Census in Taiwan,[41] 70.5 percent of males and 45.8 percent of females were in the working force in August 1998. Compared to our data showing 28.4 percent of males and 17.09 percent of females in working roles, Taiwanese advertisements did not come even close to reflecting the actual population of men and women in the Taiwan work force.

Table 2: Working Roles Shown in Taiwanese Advertisements

	male		female	
	number	percentage	number	percentage
managerial and administrative occupations	21	22.8%	5	8.6%
professional, paraprofessional, and technical occupations	41	44.6%	33	56.9%
sales and related occupations	16	17.4%	3	5.2%
clerical and administrative support occupations	9	9.8%	11	19.0%
service occupations	3	3.3%	6	10.3%
agricultural, forestry, fishing and related occupations	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
production, construction, operating, maintenance, and material handling occupations	2	2.2%	0	0.0%
total number of working roles shown	92	100.0%	58	100.0%

[41] Department of Census, *Labor Force Employment Rate*, (information online); available from http:/222.dgbasey.gov.tw/census-n/four/HT44541.HTM; Internet. Accessed October 30, 1998.

Taiwanese Men and Women in Non-working Roles

Most of the roles (male 71.6 percent; female 82.8 percent) portrayed by Taiwanese magazine advertisers were that of non-working roles: family, recreational or decorative. Family roles depicted models with children or other family members in a family environment. Recreational roles showed models in a non-working activity of leasure, such as watching television, swimming, hiking, or riding bikes. Decorative models were non-fuctional and their activity was to adorn the product as a sexual or attractive stimulus.

A comparison of the non-working roles shows that Taiwanese ads are more likely to depict men than women in family and recreational roles (family roles: men 7.3 percent to women 4.7 percent; recreational roles: men 29.7 percent to women 15.8 percent). Both men and women appeared as decorative roles in the highest percentages. Female models were depicted more often than male models in the ads. About 79.6 percent of women were shown in decorative roles while 62.9 percent of men were found in this role.

These results are based on the number of men and women shown in non-working roles. However, while examining whether men and women were depicted alone or with the opposite gender in each non-working category, an interesting difference occurred. More men than women were shown in family roles in the Taiwan ads (men 17; women 13), however, when men were depicted in family roles, they were usually accompanied by women. A total of 15 ads were found showing men or women or both in family roles. Only two of them pictured men alone with their children. One of them is a Toyota Camry ad showing a father and his little son. The text was: "Mr. Dad," "Family and Career are Both Under My Protection."[42] The other was an ad for the book, "The 7 Habits of Highly Effective Families." In this ad is a picture of a father and his child in a park. The father, pointing at the sky, seems to be explaining something to his son.[43] And yet, six ads showed women alone without a man's company. Taiwanese advertisers seems more comfortable depicting men in family roles only when women were present. That is to say,

[42] Toyota Camry ad, *Global Views Monthly*, 5 April 1997, 39.

even though more males were found in family roles, females were still the dominant characters in the family roles in Taiwanese advertisements.

In contrast, when women were portrayed in recreational roles such as swimming, golfing and hiking, men were also brought into the ads. Only two out of 39 ads showed women alone in recreational roles, while 22 showed men and women together in this role.

Product Categories and Gender Roles in Taiwanese Advertisements

The ads in which women appeared most often are cleaning products, beauty products, travel, entertainment, and cigarettes. Of these five product categories, females were usually depicted in non-working roles. For example, all of the women appearing in cleaning (i.e. shampoo, soap, etc.) and cigarette ads were portrayed in non-working roles. Eighty-one out of 121 women illustrating beauty products, such as perfumes and cosmetics, were decorative models. Twenty-four out of 26 women in travel ads (i.e. hotel, airlines, etc.) were also portrayed in non-working roles. One exception is the entertainment ads such as restaurant ads. Seven women were found in entertainment ads; five of them were in working roles and the other two were in non-working roles. According to our data, these five women were waitresses shown in a Capone restaurant ad.[44]

Courtney and Lockeretz suggested that in the advertisements they studied, women rarely ventured far from the home by themselves or with other women. In these findings, women appeared more often than men in travel ads. But for all the nine travel ads we found, men were also brought into the ads. Courtney and Lockeretz also suggested that women do not make important decisions. For major household buying, the ads showed women joined by men. Our data showed that only two out of seven ads in the home tech category, such as televisions and stereos, were illustrated by female models, while the other five were advertised by male models. Of six auto ads showing female models, five

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[43] Book ad, *Global Views Monthly*, 5 July 1997, 192-193.
[44] Capone ad, *Global Views Monthly*, 5 April 1997, 215.

were joined by male models. And when man and woman both appeared in a car, the man was always in charge of the driving.

U.S. Men and Women in Working Roles

In U.S. advertisements, 175 out of 492 males (35.6 percent) and 60 out of 386 females (15.5 percent) were depicted in working roles. Data suggested that the U.S. ads are most likely to portray men and women in the professional, paraprofessional, and technical occupations. The proportion of both men and women in professional occupations is the highest when compared with other occupational categories (men 31.4 percent; women 53.3 percent). Of 32 professional women, 16 (50 percent) were entertainers and three (9 percent) were professional athletes. And of 55 professional men, 17 (31 percent) were entertainers and 13 (24 percent) were athletes. The U.S. magazines are more likely to portray men as professional athletes and women as entertainers. Besides entertainers and athletes, the percentage of men and women in other professional roles, such as engineer, doctor, writer, pilot, photographer, etc. was about the same (men 45 percent; women 41 percent).

In the managerial and administrative occupation category, men appeared a little more often than women in the U.S. ads (men 16.6 percent; women 15 percent). The difference between the numbers of men and women shown in this category wasn't as large as in the Taiwanese ads. Unlike the Taiwan ads, women were not merely shown alone in managerial and administrative occupations. They were sometimes accompanied by men with the same or other occupational level. Of the 30 ads showing at least one male or female in managerial occupations, seven (23 percent) contained mixed gender groups. Of these seven ads, four showed both men and women in managerial positions. We also found a Compaq computer ad picturing one female manager talking to two of her male inferiors.[45] Two ads were found showing male and female clerks accompanied by their

[45] Compaq computer ad, *Time*, 9 July 1997, 1-2.

male boss. One example is a Microsoft ad showing a picture of a male manager having a meeting with two employees - one male and one female.[46]

Men were sometimes shown interacting with other men in this category. Two out of 30 ads showed two males together and they were both portrayed in managerial occupations. For example, an ARAMARK company advertisement showed a picture of Tim Lawler and Dave Moore.[47] Lawler is the regional vice president of ARAMARK, according to the ad, and Moore is the director of the Colorado Rockies; they were both coded as managerial and administrative occupations. Three ads showed one male manager with the other male of different occupational levels. However, no women were found interacting with other women in this category. That is to say, when women were portrayed in managerial occupations, they were either alone or in the company of men.

In the sales and related occupation, and service occupation categories, men appeared more often than women. Only 3.3 percent of the females were shown in sales and related occupations while 9.7 percent of the males were in this role. This compares with the 10 percent of women and 12 percent of men in service occupations. In the clerical and administrative support occupation category, a dramatic difference occurred. Data suggest that 18.3 percent of women were portrayed in clerical and administrative support occupations while only 5.7 percent of men were in this role.

Not a single woman was shown in agricultural, forestry, fishing and related occupations, and production, construction, operating, maintenance, and material building occupations. But a total of 43 men were shown in these two categories. They were usually cowboys or maintenance workers in auto company ads. Cowboys often appeared in cigarette ads, especially for the Marlboro brand. Sometimes, cowboys also represented products, like autos. A Pontiac Montana ad in one U.S. magazine showed eight cowboys either standing or sitting beside the car.[48] Maintenance workers usually appeared in auto

[46] Microsoft ad, *Time*, 9 July 1997, 12-13.
[47] ARAMARK company ad, *Business Week*, 9 October 1997, 44.
[48] Pontiac Montana ad, *Time*, 7 April 1997, 11.

ads as well. These two occupations are actually dominated by men in U.S. society. No women were found in these roles.

In Courtney and Lockeretz's study, no women were shown as professionals or high-level business executives. Our findings suggest that there has been an improvement in the way gender roles were portrayed in the U.S. ads since the percentage of men and women in managerial and administrative occupations were about the same (men 16.6 percent; women 15 percent). However, the differences in actual numbers still remain.

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics in September 1998, the percentage of men and women of 20 years and older in the labor force in the United States is 73.8 percent and 58 percent respectively.[49] Compared with our data, there is still plenty of room for U.S. advertisers to catch up with the status quo.

U.S. Men and Women in Non-working Roles

Non-working roles include family, recreational and decorative roles. As mentioned previously, gender roles were coded according to the activities engaged in the ads. A non-working role does not imply that the person is not working but only that he or she is portrayed doing non-working activities in the advertisements. In the U.S. magazine ads, 317 out of 492 (64.4 percent) males and 326 out of 386 (84.5 percent) females were in non-working roles. Data suggest that more than half of U.S. men and women were portrayed in decorative roles (men 62.5 percent to women 73.6 percent).

Very few men and women were depicted in family roles compared with the other two categories (men 6.6 percent; women 4.9 percent). In the recreational category, men were more often portrayed in these roles than women (men 30.9 percent to women 21.5 percent).

In each non-working category, ads were also classified into three categories

[49] Bureau of Labor Statistics data, *Labor Force Statistics from the Current Pupulation Survey*, (information online); available from http:/146.142.4.24/cgi-bin/surveymost; Internet. Accessed November 14, 1998.

according to the male-female interactions. In the family category, women were more likely than men to be shown in the company of the other sex. Of the 25 ads showing at least one male or female in a family role, 11 showed men alone, while only three showed just a female. In the recreational category, men were shown in 40 percent of the ads, 18 percent showed women only, and 42 percent showed the two sexes together. The result indicates that men were the dominant gender in family and recreational roles since women were usually accompanied by men while they were portrayed in a family setting or engaged in recreational activities.

Like Taiwanese ads, women were the main characters in decorative roles. The number of ads picturing women alone or with other women in decorative roles is more than the ads showing just men (women only, 172; men only 124).

Product Categories and Gender Roles in U.S. Advertisements

Of 17 product categories, 10 were dominated by male models. Women were shown mostly in ads for cleaning products, beauty products, health-care goods/drugs, home tech, entertainment, and banks/credit cards. The alcoholic beverage ads showed an equal number of men and women.

There were a few major differences in the way men and women were depicted in the product categories. Travel, auto/automobile products, alcoholic beverages, cigarettes, and institutional/public charity/charity would appear to be the five areas worth further investigation. Only one woman was shown alone in travel ads without a man's company. It was a New York Palace Hotel ad picturing a well-dressed woman half lying on a couch (decorative role).[50] Others were joined by men in the ads. No women were found accompanied by other women while seven men were shown either alone or with other men in travel ads.

In the auto/automobile product category, the number of men shown was more than

[50] Palace Hotel ad, *GQ*, July 1997, 44.

twice as many as the number of women shown. In the 34 auto ads examined, 17 (50 percent) pictured a man alone or with other men. Only seven showed just women. Women often appeared in the company of men. In the Taiwanese ads, no women were shown taking charge of driving whenever men were in view. In the U.S. ads, however, we found one ad from Isuzu Amigo, showing a woman driving while the man was in the passenger seat.[51] Other ads showed either no driver (non-moving vehicle) or a car driven by men only.

In the alcoholic beverage and cigarette ads, women were portrayed either in recreational or decorative roles. Unlike women, men were also portrayed as engineer, musician, distiller, cowboy, waiter, etc. When men and women were pictured together, women were often shown attracted by the men who drink or smoke. For example, in an ad for Grand Marnier Margarita, a man was shown holding one woman with his left arm and talking to another at his right side.[52] Also a KOOL cigarette ad shows a woman in a bar staring only at the man who holds a pack of KOOL cigarettes in his hand. She seems to not notice all the other men around her.[53]

Comparisons Between Taiwanese and U.S. Advertisements

The breakdown in terms of number and proportion of working and non-working roles (see Table 3) shows a very small difference between the way the two nations treated the sexes in advertising. Both U.S. and Taiwanese magazines are more likely to depict men in working roles and women in non-working roles.

Looking at the categories of working roles, the roles portrayed by men and women in the managerial and administrative occupational category was somewhat differecnt between the two countries. The U.S. women were depicted more often in this role than Taiwanese women, while the Taiwanese men were more likely to be depicted in this role

[51] Isuzu ad, *GQ*, July 1997, 103..
[52] Grand Marnier ad, *GQ*, July 1997, 35.

than their U.S. counterparts. In Taiwanese magazines, female managers were never portrayed with other men or women; they were always alone in the ads. However, U.S. female managers sometimes accompanied men of the same or other occupational level in the ads. Another interesting finding is that women were never shown in the company of other women in the U.S. and the Taiwan advertisements, while men do appear with other men in managerial occupations.

Some significant differences occurred in the agricultural, forestry, fishing and related occupational category, and production, construction, operating and related occupational category. Neither U.S. nor Taiwanese magazines portrayed women in these two categories. Only 2.2 percent of Taiwanese men were shown in these roles while a total of 24.6 percent of U.S. men were depicted in these two categories. This might result from the higher power distance values in Taiwan society. According to Shu-yun Cheng's cross-cultural study on Taiwan and American magazine advertising, Taiwanese ads appeared to contain higher power distance values compared to the American advertising.[54] Social status is often emphasized in a society with relatively high power distance values.

Some significant differences between Taiwanese and U.S. ads also occurred in the male-female interactions in non-working roles. When U.S. men were portrayed in family roles, 50 percent of them were joined by women. When Taiwanese men were portrayed in family roles, 78 percent were in the company of women. Only 8 percent of Taiwanese women were alone or with other women in recreational roles while 18 percent of U.S. women engaged in recreational activities without men's company.

[53] KOOL ad, *GQ*, July 1997, 148.
[54] Shu-yun Cheng, "A Comparative Analysis of Cultural Values in Taiwan and American Magazine Advertising," (Masters Thesis, The World College of Journalism and Communications, 1997).

Table 3: Working and Non-working Roles Shown in Taiwanese and U.S. Magazines

	Taiwan				U.S.			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	number	%	number	%	number	%	number	%
total number of working roles shown	92	28.4%	58	17.2%	175	35.6%	60	15 5%
managerial and administrative occupations	21	22.8%	5	8.6%	29	16.6%	9	15.0%
professional, paraprofessional, and technical occupations	41	44.6%	33	56.9%	55	31.4%	32	53.3%
sales and related occupations	16	17.4%	3	5.2%	17	9.7%	2	3.3%
clerical and administrative support occupations	9	9.8%	11	19.0%	10	5.7%	11	18.3%
service occupations	3	3.3%	6	10.3%	21	12.0%	6	10 0%
agricultural, forestry, fishing and related occupations	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	28	16.0%	0	0.0%
production, construction, operating, maintenance, and material handling occupations	2	2.2%	0	0.0%	15	8.6%	0	0.0%
total number of non-working roles shown	232	71.6%	279	82.8%	317	64.4%	326	84.5%
family	17	7.3%	13	4.7%	21	6.6%	16	4.9%
recreational	69	29.7%	44	15.8%	98	30.9%	70	21.5%
decorative	146	62.9%	222	79.6%	198	62.5%	240	73.6%

Standardized Advertising vs. Localized Advertising

One of the contributions of cross-cultural studies is to provide information for advertisers in designing their advertising campaigns. Whether to use standardized or localized advertising may depend on the overall revenue and budget of a company, however, some cultural barriers still have to be taken into account. Standardized advertising may result in the reduction of costs, increased control over ad content, stronger brand images and simplified strategic planning. One example of standardized advertising in the Revlon cosmetics ads. The models advertising Revlon products in U.S. ads also appeared in Taiwanese ads. Localized advertising is designed according to cultural variables. For example, the Microsoft ads in Taiwanese and U.S. magazines are different. In the U.S. magazines, Microsoft ads showed the picture of Western models while in theTaiwan magazines, Eastern models were used in the ads.

In this study, we also looked at whether standardized or localized adertising appeared in Taiwanese and U.S. magazines. A total of 28 ads in Taiwanese fashion magazines also appeared in the U.S. fashion magazines. These are the ads of the same brands and presented by the same models. For example, a Coach purse ad showing the picture of a female jazz singer in the U.S. Elle was also found in Taiwan's Elle magazine.[55] A Tommy Hilfiger perfume ad picturing five American models in U.S. GQ also apppeared in the Taiwanese GQ.[56] Most of these standardized advertisements were of jewelry, clothing and beauty products. In general interest magazines, only two standardized ads were found.

In Taiwan, a high percentage of the clothing and beauty products were imported from Western countries. The same ads which were used in the West were often adopted by Taiwanese agencies while promoting their products. Therefore, standardized ads are

[55] Coach ads, Taiwan *Elle*, July 1997, 68-69; also in U.S. *Elle*, April 1997, 30-32.
[56] Hilfiger perfume ads, Taiwan *GQ*, July 1997, 13; also in U.S. *GQ*, October 1997, 31.

expected to be found for these products. In this study, 28 of the same ads were found in the sampled Taiwanese and U.S. magazines.

Another interesting area worth further study is that Taiwanese advertisers seem to prefer using Western models in magazine ads. Of the 661 adults in Taiwanese magazine ads, 350 (53 percent) were Western models. The Western models appeared most often in the ads for clothing and beauty products. Despite the products imported from Western lands, domestic Taiwan products sometimes used Western models as well. One example is a Wacoal Lingerie ad picturing the scene of a wedding reception.[57] All of the guests, including the groom, are Eastern models and dressed formally, while the bride is a Western model wearing lingerie only. Advertisements like this raise another issue that the beauty images in Taiwan are influenced by Western culture. How and why has the standard of beauty in the West affected the "beauty image" in Taiwan? This is yet another intriguing area for future research.

[57] Wacoal ad, *Elle*, July 1997, 163.

The Impact of Culture on Political Advertising
- A comparison between the U.S. and Korean newspaper ads -

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The Impact of Culture on Political Advertising
- A comparison between the U.S. and Korean newspaper ads -

ABSTRACT

This study examines the impact of cultural characteristics on political advertising between the United States and Korea. A total of 446 advertisements from 1963 to 1997 were content-analyzed in this study. Results of the study showed that there were differences of contents and valences of political advertising between the U.S. and Korea. Also, discussions based on study results showed mixed and intertwined arguments against or for the expectations for this study.

The Impact of Culture on Political Advertising
- A comparison between the U.S. and Korean newspaper ads -

Introduction

In every democratic system political candidates and parties face the fundamental problem of how they can communicate with, and incidentally persuade, voters to accept their leadership(Kaid & Holtz-Bacha, 1995). Political advertising is one of the major components of contemporary campaigns for public office because it provides a solution to this problem that also has the advantage being under the direct control of the candidate and party(Devlin, 1995; Kaid & Holtz-Bacha, 1995). Following Eisenhower's initial use of spots in the 1952 presidential campaign, paid political advertising grew at a phenomenal rate and now occupies a prominent position in virtually every contested race for major political office in the U.S. today(Cundy, 1986). Despite the importance of political advertising, social scientists have been slow to study and appreciate this form of campaign communication(Joslyn, 1986).

The major concern of this research is comparatively reviewing the cultural impact on political advertising. The underlying relationship between political ad-related factors and the cultural characteristics of a society has been recognized by researchers(Kaid & Holtz-Bacha, 1995; Tak, 1993). Kaid and Holtz-Bacha(1995) reported that cultural differences often determine the role that televised political advertising can play in any given democracy. And also, Tak(1993) suggested that cultural factor(the degree of uncertainty avoidance) was proven to be a good determinant of different cultural patterns between Western and Eastern countries.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of cultural characteristics on political advertising. More specifically, the study aims at exploring the feasibility of using cultural characteristics as the conceptual framework which explains the differences of political ad-related factors-contents and valences-between the U.S. and Korea.

Conceptualization

1. Cultural characteristics

Culture is the expression of the value systems shared by major groups of population and it is learned, not inherited. Hofstede(1984) defined the culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another." McLuhan(1964) noted that advertisements are the richest and most faithful daily reflections that any society ever made of its entire range of activities. Advertising reflects the way people think, feel, and react.

Frith and Frith(1990) identified key cultural differences between West and East that are presumably reflected in advertising. These cultural characteristics were direct and indirect discourse, individualism and collectivism, horizontal and vertical identification of personal relationships, determinism and collectivism, and logical and intuitive problem-solving. Other cross-cultural studies of advertising have focused intensively on Eastern and Western cultural traditions or standards to assess major differences in ads(Caillat & Mueller, 1996; Cheng, 1994; Choe, Wilcox & Hardy, 1986; Frith & Wesson, 1991; Kim, 1996; Lin, 1993; Mueller, 1987; Nevett, 1992). They equally argued that distinct cultural characteristics are embedded in ad-related factors, which are used in varying degrees to convey advertising messages of various cultures. So, all manifestations of culture, at different levels, are reflected in advertising(De Mooij, 1998).

Also, cross-cultural studies of political advertising have provided evidence that political advertising content contains the cultural values of a given society(Kaid & Holtz-Bacha, 1995; Tak, 1993). In other words, political advertising reflects the uniqueness of an indigenous culture, for both Western and non-Western countries. Kaid and Holtz-Bacha(1995) compared the content, style, and effects of exposure to televised political advertising among several Western European democratic systems. Although there are admitted differences in media and political system variables in these countries, the form and effect of their political advertising have striking similarities. It is evident that the cultural similarity(Western culture) among these nations accounts for that results. The reflection of culture in political advertising was observed by another research. Tak(1993) found that political advertising messages transmitted by the U.S. +and Korean candidates were highly reflective of their cultural orientations.

The criteria for the cultural dimensions resulted in mixed agreement and support among researchers, primarily because these are never completely exclusive and independent. However, Hofstede(1984) systematically restructured the criteria for cultural characteristics into four distinct categories: individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty-avoidance and masculinity-femininity. Although there are more cultural characteristics that may be relevant to advertising, these four characteristics seemed to be the most parsimonious criteria used to classfy the different patterns of advertising expressions among cultures(Gudykunst, 1997; Lin, 1993; Zandpour et al., 1994). Therefore, the present study will build on Hofstede's cultural criteria by examining the following cultural characteristics that have been utilized as the common denominators in cross-cultural studies of advertising: individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty-avoidance and masculinity-femininity.

Individualism-collectivism: Individualism-collectivism has been suggested to be the major dimension of cultural variability identified by theorists across disciplines(Zandpour et al., 1994). Individualism is defined as "a situation in which people are supposed to look after themselves and their immediate family only," whereas collectivism is defined as a "situation in which people belong to in-groups or collectivists that are supposed to look after them in exchange for loyalty"(De Mooij, 1998, p. 75). The emphasis in individualistic societies is on a person's initiative and achievement, relying on factual information for dedision-making as opposed to seeking group harmony and consensus(De Mooij, 1998; Gudykunst, 1997; Zandpour et al., 1994). Western cultures are mainly regarded as individualistic societies as opposed to Eastern cultures, which are collectivistic(Frith & Wessen, 1991; Hofstede, 1984).

People in individualistic societies tend to be universalitic and apply the same value standards to all. People in collectivistic societies, in contrast, tend to be particularistic and apply different value standards to ingroups and outgroups(Gudykunst, 1997, p. 332). So, individualistic societies are more likely to put more emphasis on individual differences or strength of argument and less emphasis on shared feeling and consonance among persons when they process persuasive messages such as advertising.

Frith and Wessen(1991) confirmed their hypothesis that the American advertisements would more frequently contain single individuals that would the British ads. In line with this, Zandpour et al.(1994) found that commercials in individualistic societies resulted in more informative advertising with a news orientation, compared to those in collectivistic cultures. And they added that ads generally tended to avoid unrealistic argument or promises.

Power-distance: Power distance is concerned with the relationship between authority and social perception and defined as "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations accept that power is distributed unequally"(Hofstede & Bond, 1984, p. 419). Cultures vary from emphasizing low to high degrees of power-distance. In high power-distance cultures, people tend to accept the their superiors' orders without question. As such, superiors consider their subordinates to be different from themselves and vice versa(Gudykunst, 1997).

High and low Power-distance exists in all cultures, but one tends to dominates.

Zandpour et al.'s(1994) study confirmed that power-distance was a significant factor affecting advertising differences among cultures. They found that high power-distance cultures tended to use more celebrities with various kinds of authorities and to rely on more psychological appeals, while low power distance culture tends to use less celebrities and more logical and explicit conclusions. Sriram et al.(1991) and Frith and Wesson(1991) also substantiated the influence of power-distance on advertising. In particular, Sriram et al.(1991) found that from a discriminant analysis, power-distance was a significant determinant for clustering 40 countries into six groups, within each of which standardization could be attempted.

Uncertainty-avoidance: Uncertainty-avoidance can be defined as "the extent to which people feel threatened by uncertainty and ambiguity and try to avoid these situations"(De Mooij, 1998, p. 83). In the cultures of high uncertainty-avoidance, there is a need for rules, absolute truth and the advice of those whom they consider to be experts(De Mooij, 1998; Hofstede, 1984; Zandpour et al., 1994). On the contrary, low uncertainty-avoidance cultures feel that there should be as few rules as possible. They believe more in generalists and common sense and there is less ritual behavior.

Learning by trial-and-error and experimentation, searching for innovation, and acceptance of a high level of mobility all express an easy attitude toward insecurity. Instead of engaging in decision-making, people avoiding uncertainties are more likely to rely on rules, precedents and patterns. They tend to avoid making assessments and assumptions and do not like to publish or discuss their plans before these are complete(De Mooij, 1998). This cultural value is more clearly reflected in advertising than any other values because it is more closely related to communication patterns and the comprehensibility of messages.

Zandpour et al.(1994) found that advertising in cultures resisting uncertainties tended to rely more on rational arguments and clear information, whereas cultures with high tolerance for uncertainty were more likely to choose drama-lecture format of commercial.

Masculinity-femininity: Masculinity-femininity can be defined as follows: "the dominant values in a masculine society are achievement and success, the dominant values in a feminine society are caring for others and quality of life"(De Mooij, 1998, p. 80). High masculinity refers to placing a high value on things, power, and assertiveness, whereas systems in which people, quality of life, and nurturance prevail are low on masculinity or high on femininity(Hofstede, 1991). In masculine societies, performance and achievement are important. Status is important to show success(De Mooij, 1998; Gudykunst, 1997). There is a tendency to polarize: Big and fast are beautiful. Feminine societies, those scoring low on the masculinity index, are more service-oriented, have a people orientation: Small is beautiful. There is a tendency to strive for consensus. Quality of life is more important than winning. Being a "winner" is positive in masculine societies and is negative in feminine societies.

For advertising and branding, the masculine-feminine dimension can be used to distinguish important cultural differences with respect to values and motivations like achievement, accomplishment, and success(De Mooij, 1998). This dimension discriminates between cultures particularly with respect to values related to winning, success, and status, which are much used in advertising valence. The difference between the feminine and masculine value systems is related to the aggressive PR and advertising campaign(De Mooij, 1998).

2. Political ad-related factors

One of the most important vehicles for transmitting campaign information was the paid political advertisement(Joslyn, 1986; McClure & Patterson, 1974). Political advertising may be used to communicate with a large proportion of most large constituencies, they may be targetted to particular demographic or attitudinal groups and they are one of the few forms of communication over which the candidate has almost complete control(Joslyn, 1980). The intent of this research is to compare the political advertisements that were used for presidential election campaigns between the United States and Korea. The following ad-related factors will be analyzed: information contents and valences of political advertising.

Ad Contents: Campaign advertising has often been criticized for providing voters with little information about the contenders' issue positions, focusing instead on image-oriented personality appeals(McGinniss, 1969). However, this critics have apparently dismissed the possibility that political advertising might contain information potentially beneficial to voters(Bowers, 1972). The claim that campaign issues and images of candidates are important determinants of voting presuppose that voters get information about them(Choi & Becker, 1987).

Shyles(1986) defines issue as one that is concerned with "current topics linked to the national interest"(p. 117). He has included such issue categories as foreign policy, economy, domestic, energy & environment, national security & well-being, democracy, government's past record, feministic concerns, and other special issues. Also, the same person defines image as concerned with the "candidate's received or projected personality traits and character attributes(p. 114). The eight image categories described by Shyles(1986) are as follows: altruism, competence, personal characteristics, experience, honesty, leadership, strength, and other special qualities. Specifically, issue ads have in a more favorable candidate evaluation(Kaid & Sanders, 1978), and greater intention to vote for the candidate(Garramone, 1985) than did image ads.

Kaid and Holtz-Bacha(1995) attempted to provide a comparison across Western cultural societies of the content, style, and effects of modern political ads on the basis of content analysis and experimental studies conducted in election campaigns from 1988 through 1992. They found that one of the most common elements of political ads across the six countries analyzed is that the majority of ads concentrate on issues, rather than images of candidates or parties. In line with this, Tak(1993) confirmed that political advertising primarily reflects the unique cultural characteristics, through the comparison between the U.S. and Korean political ad. He found that the context of communication and the degree of uncertainty avoidance was a important cultural parameter, which served as a determinant for the different cultural orientations between West and East.

Zandpour et al.(1994) found that the ads in individualistic and high power-distance societies delivered more information than those in collectivistic and low power-distance societies. And low uncertainty-avoidance societies prefer clear information and rational arguments(Hofstede, 1991). It is therefore assumed that the political ads in individualistic, low power-distance and low uncertainty-avoidance societies contain more issue than those in collectivistic, high power-distance and high uncertainty-avoidance societies.

Ad valences: Negative ads and positive ads are generally distinguished by their relative emphasis on the sponsoring candidate and his or her opponents(Kaid & Johnston, 1991). Negative ads focus on criticisms against the opponent, while positive ads focus on the "good" characteristics, accomplishments, or issue positions of the sponsoring candidate. Of course, in the real world, ad valence varies along a continuum, and ads may mix positive and negative elements(Shapiro & Rieger, 1989).

Surlin and Gordon described negative political ads as "the direct reference or attacking political advertisement"(1977) and operationalized the genre as advertising which attacks the other candidate personally, the issues for which the other candidate stands, or the party of the other candidate(Garramone, 1984). Benze and Declercq(1985) classified three distinct types of negative ads: attacks on an opponent's issue stance, performance, and/or personality. Also, purposes of negative ads included attacking the opponent's personal characteristics, issue positions, and group affiliations(Kaid & Johnston, 1991).

Johnston-Cartee and Copeland(1991) classified the strategy of negative ads into three modes: the direct attack, the direct comparison, and the implied comparison. Further they indicated that each of these modes may be divided into such dichotomous dimensions such as a true/false and an ethical/unethical. Kaid and Johnston(1991) extended the analysis of content of negative ad into a four-cell typology; humor and ridicule, linking the opponent with undesirable issues or images, negative labels for the opponent(name calling), and implying guilt by association with undesirable person or groups.

Acceptability of negative political advertising is determined by political culture of a certain society(Kaid & Holtz-Bacha, 1995; Tak, 1993). It is natural that campaign experts should take account of the cultural and regional characteristics of certain country prior to ad execution. It is therefore assumed that the valence of political advertising will be different among countries because they have unique cultural characteristics.

Kaid and Holtz-Bacha(1995) found that political ads in Western cultural societies, i.e., the United States, France, Germany, Italy, Britain, and Israel-have to carry dominantly focused on positive. Tak(1993) found that low uncertainty-avoidance culture tended to focus on negative in their political ads more frequently than did high uncertainty-avoidance cultures(Tak, 1993). The degree of uncertainty-avoidance was proven to be a good determinant of different cultural patterns between the West and East.

In high power-distance cultures, status is important for showing power. However, in cultures of low power-distance, powerful people try to look less powerful(De Mooij, 1998). In masculine cultures, performance and achievement are important values(Hofstede, 1984). Status is important to show success. There is a tendency to polarize: Big and fast are beautiful(De Mooij, 1998). High uncertainty-avoidance cultures, those scoring high in the uncertainty-avoidance index, tend to be more aggressive and emotional than does the opposite culture(Hofstede, 1984). It is therefore assumed that the political ads in high power-distance and low uncertainty-avoidance cultures result in more attacking or direct reference political advertising, compared to those in low power-distance and low uncertainty-avoidance societies.

Country profile

Two nations were selected from North America and Asia to see the clear difference in cultural orientation, the United States and Korea. From a cultural perspective, Korea represents traditionally Eastern cultures, whereas the United States represents the West(Frith & Wesson, 1991; Mueller, 1987; Taylor et al., 1997).

The communication objective in Asian cultures are directed toward achieving consensus and harmony in interpersonal relations and social circumstances(Lin, 1993). For this reason, Korean culture is found to be collectivistic in emphasizing these values. In contrast, the United States is considered a culture that relies heavily on its Western rhetoric and logical tradition to relate thoughts and actions to people and their environment. Therefore, the U.S. culture is regarded to be highly individualistic(De Mooij, 1998; Hofstede, 1994; Kim, 1996; Zandpour et al., 1994).

Korea is collectivistic culture(De Mooij, 1998; Zandpour et al., 1994). This finding was consistent with that of Klopf(1981) who reported that in Korea, the family unit is more important than individual, and decisions are made in favor of the entire family, rather than for the sole benefit of a single individual of the family. Korean culture has mostly been influenced by Confucianism, which stresses the importance of maintaining proper human relationships. This tradition results in the implicitness and indirectness of the Korean language(Yum, 1987). On this side of the Pacific, the Western spirit of adventurism and conquest guides the U.S. culture to express more challenges and confrontation to the status quo(Lin, 1993). Thus the U.S. culture is characterized as direct, explicit(Frith & Wesson, 1991) and as distrustful of authority(Norton, 1964).

According to Hofstede's(1991) survey, Asian countries tended mostly to be in high power-distance cultures, whereas most of Western countries were more likely to belong to low power-distance cultures. His study also found that the Korean culture was high power-distance society, showing scores of 60 respectively on a power-distance scale, compared to 40 of the United States.

Americans live easily with uncertainty and base many of their daily decisions on probabilities(De Mooij, 1994). The Asian people, on the other hand, shun insecurity. Hofstede(1991) showed that Asian tended to have a strong need to avoid uncertainty than people of any other nationality. The uncertainty-avoidance index of Korea was 85, whereas it is 46 for the U.S. Consequently, Korean has much higher uncertainty avoidance, compared to the United States(Hofstede, 1991).

Masculinity versus femininity of cultures is recognized in many expressions(De Mooij, 1998). The masculinity index of Korea was 39 respectively, whereas it is 62 for the U.S.(Hofstede, 1991). Result-, Winning- and success-orientations were characteristics of American culture and recognized in advertising(De Mooij, 1998). Aggressive behavior related to an explicit winning mentality is stronger in masculine cultures than that in more feminine culture such as the Korean culture.

Based on the above discussion and findings, the following hypotheses were stated:

H1: In terms of the usage pattern of content, the political ads of the U.S. will be issue-oriented, whereas those in Korea will be more image-oriented.

H2: In terms of the directive valences, the political ads of the U.S. will contain more negative factors rather than the positive ones, compared to those in Korean political ads.

H2-1: Compared to Korean negative ads, the purposes of the U.S. negative ads will rely significantly more on attacking the opponent's issue position rather than personal characteristics.
H2-2: Compared to Korean negative ads, the strategies of the U.S. negative ads will rely significantly more on the direct attack or comparison rather than the implied comparison.

In addition, following research questions are formulated for a complete understanding of cultural differences between the two countries.
Q1: What are the differences in salient issues that were employed in political ads between the two countries.
Q2: What are the differences in salient images that were employed in political ads between the two countries.

Method

This study employed the systematic content analysis of newspaper political advertising since the 1960s between the United States and Korea. The U.S. and Korean political ads were obtained by purposive sampling, i.e., advertisements selected on the basis of specific characteristics or qualities and eliminated those that failed to meet these criteria. The population of this study was defined as all political ads appearing in major daily newspapers during the 1960-1997 presidential election campaigns in both countries. This study chose the year of 1963 as the starting point for analysis. In the case of Korea, newspaper political advertising was legitimately allowed at first in 1963. A total of 16 presidential elections of both nations was studied. In Korea, the presidential elections held in 1963, 1967, 1971, 1981, 1987, 1992, and 1997 were chosen for the present study. In the United States, the presidential elections held in 1964, 1968, 1972, 1976, 1980, 1984, 1988, 1992, and 1996 were chosen for this study. In this study, the unit of analysis was each ad in selected newspapers. As a result, a total of 446 newspaper ads were collected from the United States(n=147) and Korea(n=299).

In Korea, it has three major national dailies whose circulation is identified more than 1,500,000: *Chosun Ilbo, Hankuk Ilbo, and Dong-A Ilbo*. In the United States, five major dailies were selected for the present study: *Atlanta Constitution, Chicago Tribune, LA Times, New York Times, and Washington Post*. In the case of the U.S, this study used newspapers chosen on the basis of following criteria: geographical region, political impact, good writing, and clear graphics(Adams & McKercher, 1991; KPI, 1986).

1. Coding scheme

The coding categories for this study were borrowed and adapted from other content analysis studies of political advertising, particularly, Shyles'(1986) conceptualization of contents, which incorporates issue and image categories of newspaper political ads. The categories included salient issues(foreign policy, economy, domestic, energy & environment, national security & well-being, democracy, government's past record, feministic concerns, and other special issues), and images(altruism, competence, personal characteristics, experience, honesty, leadership, strength, and other special qualities)(Shyles, 1986).

Content variable of political advertising was nominally coded: (1) issue and (2) image. Salient issues were nominally measured by the presence(coded as "1") or absence(coded as "0") of the 9 issue cues. Salient images were also categorically coded by the presence(coded as "1") or absence(coded as "0") of the 8 image cues.

In the valence of political advertising, Kaid and Johnston's(attacking opponent's issue positions, personal characteristics, and group affiliations)(1991) and Johnson-Cartee and Copeland's conceptualization(direct attack, direct comparison, and implied comparison)(1991) were also adapted to measure purposes and strategies used by the ads.

Valence variable of political advertising was nominally coded: (1) positive and (2) negative. Purposes of negative ads were categorically measured: (1) attacking opponent's issue positions, (2) attacking opponent's personal characteristics, and (3) group affiliations. Strategies used in negative ads were also categorically coded: (1) direct attack, (2) direct comparison, and (3) implied comparison.

Two Korean graduate students fluent in English were selected as coders. After they had been trained in the use of categories of ad-related factors and their definition, coders were given time to individually code a sample of ads and then were reassembled to assess coding problems and retrained before proceeding to the actual coding. Intercoder reliability tests were done both on content and valence variables with 20% of the selected samples, according to Scott's(1955) formula. The intercoder reliability for the U.S. ads was 89 percent as compared to 93 percent for the Korean ads. Both levels are stable higher than the standard level which is 85 percent(Kassarjian, 1977).

2. A new approach with concept mapping

As a way of comparing countries' unique meaning vis a vis ad-related factors, this study proposes the use of a computerized concept-mapping program called VBPro(Miller, 1995). Concept mapping is a multidimensional scaling procedure developed for the specific purpose of analyzing natural language text through computer program(Miller, 1995). The program creates a term-by-term cosine matrix based on the frequency of their occurrence and co-occurrence and extracts the first three eigenvectors of this matrix. The eigen values are standardized to unit length(that is, the sum of their squares equals one). This standardization minimizes differences in derived values that are due solely to differences in frequency occurrence(Andsager and Miller, 1994). The formula for the co-occurrence cosine matrix is as follows where A and B represent the respective terms(Salton, 1982).

$$\mathrm{Cos} = \Sigma AB \,/\, \sqrt{(\Sigma A^2)(\Sigma B^2)}$$

The values for the first eigenvector depend primarily on the frequency and number of co-occurrences of each term and are interpreted as the prominence or "size" of that term or concept(Andsager and Miller, 1994). The second and third eigenvectors are interpreted as dimensions to project the words into a two dimensional space(Andsager and Miller, 1994). Therefore, concepts appearing close to each other could be said to represent a cluster and are related through co-occurrence(Chew & Kim, 1994).

For the most part, the usage of concept mapping has varied according to the analytic purposes and media characteristics. However, the present study used concept mapping to analyze the dynamic pattern between attributes and objects. Unlike the previous study that focused on texts in media coverage and open-ended data from respondents, this study analyzed the creative patterns in newspaper political advertising between the two countries. Specifically, it examined how ad-related attributes will co-occur and be associated with specific countries(the objects). Spatial plots were used to show the distance(closeness or separateness) of specific elements or factors related to advertising from each country.

As mentioned earlier, standardized principle components of the co-occurrence matrix were created based on the interactions between these country variables and categorical attributes, which subsequently demonstrate the relationship clusters of selected terms and their standardized loadings. These loadings produced three dimensional coordinates, among which the second and third coordinates were the horizontal and vertical dimensions respectively. In the present study, the standardized loadings were re-expressed as bubble coordinates. It further provides comparative insights into what types of categorical attributes occur more frequently between the two countries. Specifically, it compared country to country in regard to preplanned categorical attributes by doing maps two countries.

Results

1. Results by significant test

A significant difference was not found in contents of political ads during the presidential election campaign in both countries. According to the first hypothesis, the image content of the U.S. print ads was expected to be higher than that for the Korean ads. However, the result of the chi-square test suggests no significant difference between the two countries samples(see Table 1). The U.S. and Korean ads tended to equally carry both issue and image contents with slight difference between both. Thus, hypothesis 1 was rejected.

Table 1. Issue and image political ads

Category	U.S.	Korea
Issue	80(54.4%)	153(51.2%)
Image	67(45.6%)	146(48.8%)

$\chi^2 = .418$, df = 1, N.S.

Hypothesis 2 stated that there is a difference between the U.S. and Korean ads in the valences of political advertising. However, A chi-square analysis showed that the difference in the U.S. and Korean ads was not significant(see Table 2). This result is inconsistent with the expectation; hence, Hypothesis 2 was rejected.

Table 2. Positive and negative political ads

Category	U.S.	Korea
Positive	100(68.0%)	184(61.5%)
Negative	47(32.0%)	115(38.5%)

$\chi^2 = 1.794$, df = 1, N.S.

Hypothesis 2-1 proposed that the purposes of the U.S. negative ads will rely significantly more on attacking the opponent's issue position rather than personal characteristics, compared to Korean ads. As expected chi-square analysis reveals that there is a significant association between country of purposes used in ads(χ^2=14.939, df=2, p<.001; see Table 3). Hence, Hypothesis 2-1 was supported.

Table 3. Purposes of negative political ads

Category	U.S.	Korea
attacking the issue position	34(72.3%)	45(39.1%)
attacking the personal characteristics	11(23.4%)	63(54.8%)
attacking group affiliations	2(4.3%)	7(6.1%)

$\chi^2 = 14.939$, df = 2, p<.001

According to hypothesis 2-2, strategies used in the U.S. negative ads will rely significantly more on the direct attack or comparison rather than the implied comparison, compared to Korean ads. As the result in Table 4 indicate, the U.S. ads did not use more direct attack or comparison(89.4 %) than did Korean ads(81.7%)(see Table 4).

Table 4. Strategies of negative political ads

Category	U.S.	Korea
the direct attack or comparison	42(89.4%)	94(81.7%)
the implied comparison	5(10.6%)	21(18.3%)

$\chi^2 = 1.439$, df = 1, N.S.

What are the differences in salient issues that were employed in political ads between the two countries? As can be seen in Table 5, three salient issue categories of economy, energy & environment, and democracy showed significant difference between the two countries. In the issue of economy, the most frequently mentioned issue in Korea, larger percentage(48.8%) of Korean ads contained economic concern, while only 37.4 percent of the U.S. ads dealt with economic issues(χ_2=5.186, p<.05; see Table 5).

Table 5. Salient issues shown by the U.S. and Korean political ads

Category	U.S.	Korea	Significance level	
Foreign policy	42(28.6%)	59(19.7%)	χ_2= .418,	N.S.
Economy	55(37.4%)	146(48.8%)	χ_2=5.186,	p<.05
Domestic	72(49.0%)	140(46.8%)	χ_2= .184,	N.S.
Energy & environment	6(4.1%)	3(1.0%)	χ_2=4.723,	p<.05
National security & well-being	41(27.9%)	81(27.1%)	χ_2= .032,	N.S.
Government's past record	42(28.6%)	95(31.8%)	χ_2= .475,	N.S.
Democracy	20(13.6%)	90(30.1%)	χ_2=14.431,	p<.001
Feministic concerns	10(6.8%)	16(5.4%)	χ_2= .378,	N.S.

In energy & environmental issue, the U.S. ads showed larger percentage(4.1%) than those of Korean ads(1.0%), although both proportions are never statistically interpretable(χ_2=4.723, p<.05; see Table 5). However, in democracy issue, 30.1 percent of Korean ads emphasized this issue, whereas 13.6 percent of the U.S. ads contained it(χ_2=14.431, p<.001).

What are the differences in salient images that were employed in political ads between the two countries? As can be seen in Table 6, two salient issue categories of experience and honesty showed significant difference between the two countries. In the case of experience, larger percentage(22.7%) of Korean ads mentioned this issue, while smaller percentage(15.6%) of the U.S. ads mentioned it(χ_2=3.056, p<.080; see Table 6). In the case of honesty, Korean ads showed larger percentage(21.1%) than those of the U.S. ads(14.3%).

Table 6. Salient Images shown by the U.S. and Korean political ads

Category	U.S.	Korea	Significance level	
Altruism	6(4.1%)	12(4.0%)	χ_2= .001,	N.S.
Competence	44(29.9%)	70(23.4%)	χ_2=2.202,	N.S.
Personal characteristics	16(10.9%)	41(13.7%)	χ_2= .707,	N.S.
Experience	23(15.6%)	68(22.7%)	χ_2=3.056,	p<.080
Honesty	21(14.3%)	63(21.1%)	χ_2=2.967,	p<.085
Leadership	22(15.0%)	31(10.4%)	χ_2=1.990,	N.S.
Strength	14(9.5%)	30(10.0%)	χ_2= .029,	N.S.

2. Results by Concept mapping

Figure 1 based on standardized loadings(Table 7) displays contents as they co-occur with countries. Clusters of "issue ads" and "image ads" were almost equal distance from the

U.S. and Korea. These results are closely consistent with the chi-square test results.

Figure 1. Concept mapping from attributes associated with ad contents by the U.S. and Korea

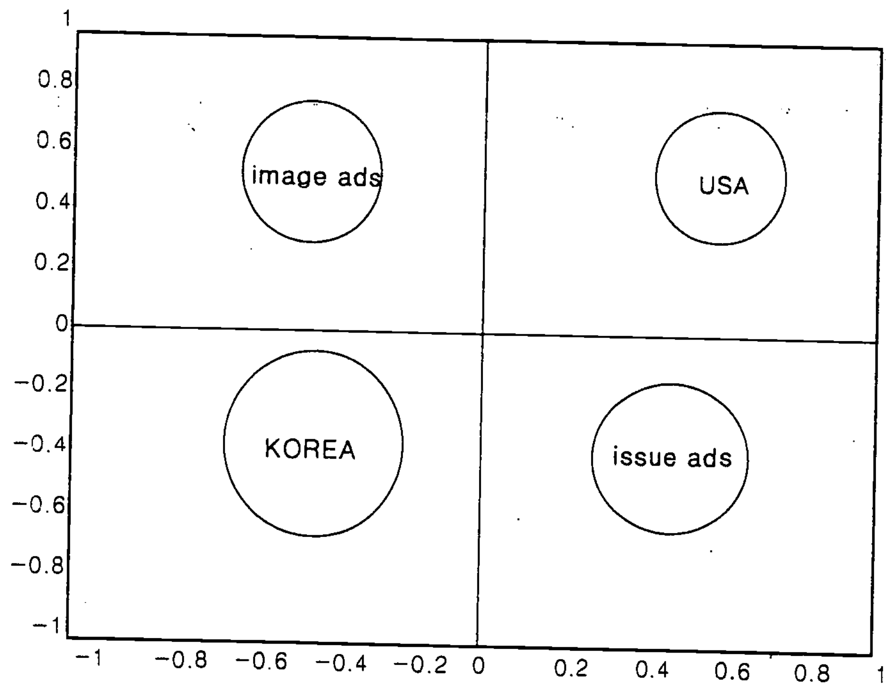

Table 7. Attributes associated with ad contents by country

	Standardized loadings: first three coordinates		
Term	Size	Horizontal	Vertical
Issue ads	0.72	0.49	-0.48
Image ads	0.69	-0.52	0.51
USA	0.57	0.59	0.57
Korea	0.82	-0.41	-0.40

Figure 2 maps standardized loadings(Table 8) and displays salient issues as they co-occur with countries. A cluster of "economy" and "democracy" was located relatively closer to Korea, compared with the U.S. Further, "foreign policy" was closer to the U.S. rather than Korea. These results provide partial support for the previous chi-square results.

Figure 2. Concept mapping from attributes associated with issue ads by the U.S. and Korea

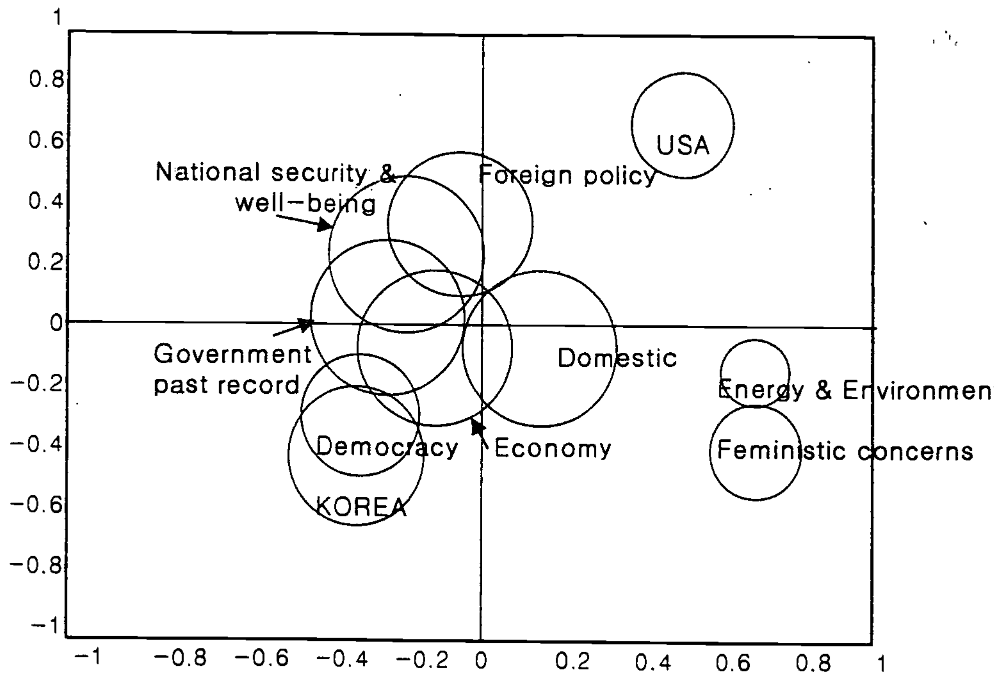

Table 8. Attributes associated with issue ads by country

Standardized loadings: first three coordinates			
Term	Size	Horizontal	Vertical
Foreign policy	0.93	-0.02	0.37
Economy	1.00	-0.08	-0.05
Domestic	0.99	0.16	-0.04
Energy & Environment	0.19	0.91	-0.36
National security & well-being	0.95	-0.16	0.26
Government's past record	0.96	-0.22	0.17
Democracy	0.89	-0.31	-0.33
Feministic concerns	0.40	0.73	-0.56
USA	0.53	0.53	0.66
Korea	0.80	-0.32	-0.51

Figure 3 based on standardized loadings(Table 9) displays salient images as they co-occur with countries. Clusters of "experience" and "honesty" were located noticeably closer to Korea. Whereas "leadership" was located relatively to the U.S. compared with Korea. The results are partially consistent with the previous chi-square results.

Figure 3. Concept mapping from attributes associated with image ads by the U.S. and Korea

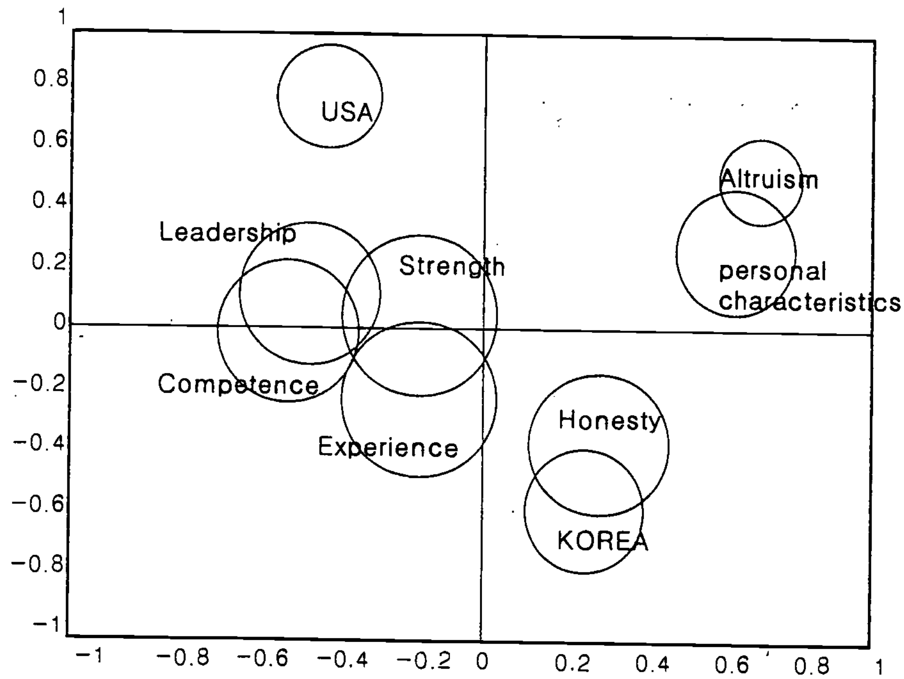

Table 9. Attributes associated with image ads by country

Standardized loadings: first three coordinates			
Term	Size	Horizontal	Vertical
Altruism	0.44	0.74	0.51
Competence	0.86	-0.51	-0.07
Personal characteristics	0.69	0.66	0.31
Experience	0.86	-0.51	-0.07
Honesty	0.95	-0.17	-0.25
Leadership	0.87	0.32	-0.39
Strength	0.99	-0.17	0.01
USA	0.51	-0.42	0.75
Korea	0.76	0.24	-0.61

Figure 4 based on standardized loadings(Table 10) displays the attributes associated with valences of political ads as they co-occur with countries. Clusters of "positive ads" and "negative ads" were almost equal distance from the U.S. and Korea. The "attacking the personal characteristics" and "the implied comparison" were located more closely to Korea, whereas clusters of "attacking the issue position", "attacking group affiliations," and "the implied comparison" was identified more closely to the U.S. These results provide partial support for hypotheses 2, 2-1 and 2-2.

Figure 4. Concept mapping from attributes associated with valences of political ads by the U.S. and Korea

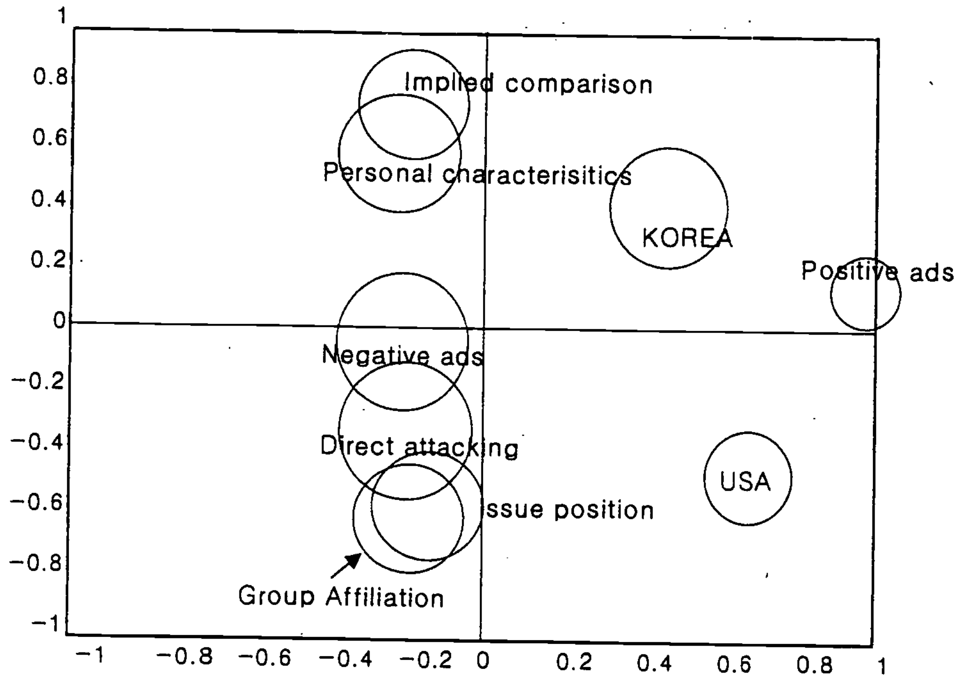

Table 10. Attributes associated with ad valences by country

Standardized loadings: first three coordinates			
Term	Size	Horizontal	Vertical
Positive ads	0.26	0.96	0.11
Negative ads	0.97	-0.25	-0.04
Direct attacking	0.92	-0.21	-0.32
Implied comparison	0.53	-0.20	0.82
Issue position	0.79	-0.15	-0.60
Personal Characteristics	0.74	-0.25	0.62
Group Affiliations	0.74	-0.19	-0.64
USA	0.55	0.67	-0.50
Korea	0.79	0.47	0.39

Discussions

1. Ad Contents

It was expected that the political ads in individualistic, low power-distance and low uncertainty-avoidance societies would carry more issue, compared to those in collectivistic, high power-distance, and high uncertainty-avoidance cultures. However, the U.S. and Korean ads contain more issue content rather than image content. Results of the analysis of the relationship between the content of ads and cultural characteristics show that there is no significant difference between the two countries in emphasizing issue or image. Such finding indicates that the content of newspaper political ads did not reflect culture. But, it need more careful interpretation, because the finding does not match with the results of previous studies which concluded that political ads in newspapers contained a substantial number of political issues rather than candidate image(Eyal, 1985; Johnson & Elebash, 1986; Mintz, 1986), unlike those in electronic media.

In the presence of salient issues in political ads, the three salient issue categories of economy, energy & environment and democracy showed significant differences between the two countries. Korean ads contained more economy and democracy issues than did the U.S. ads. Economic development has been the utmost concern among all Koreans since the country had become a republic in 1948. And, Korea lacked a democratic tradition. The establishment of a political system in which two or more political parties compete for power with a more or less equal chance of gaining control of the government realized recently in Korea. However, in the issue of energy & environment, the U.S. ads contained more such issues than did Korean ads. Koreans could not afford to worry about energy and environmental matters for decades.

With regard to the differences in the salient images, Korea with high uncertainty-avoidance and collective culture, emphasized images of honesty and experience than did the U.S. with low uncertainty-avoidance and individualistic culture did. Specifically, this result indicate that political advertising is generally reflective of cultural characteristics of each country. Korean culture has mostly been influenced by Confucianism, which attach more important on the social hierarchy. As a result, it is valid that Korean political ads placed more emphasis on experience than did the U.S. ads.

2. Ad Valences

With regard to the valences of political ad, it was therefore predicted that the political ads in high power-distance, masculine and low uncertainty-avoidance societies resulted in more receptive attacking or direct reference political advertising, compared to those in low power-distance, femininity and low uncertainty-avoidance cultures. However, chi-square test suggested that there was no significant difference in using of negative political ads between the two countries. That is, there must be other extraneous variable such as political characteristics or media bias. Future research need to be done to explain this result. Such finding implies that cultural characteristics do not affect the valence of political ad. This result was also confirmed by the result of t-test of negativity of newspaper political ads.

With regard to the purposes of negative ads, it was assumed that the political ads of Korea with high contextual and collectivisitic culture contained more negative image than did those of the U.S. with low contextual and individualistic culture. The result of chi-square test was consistent with the expectation based on the cultural variables. The U.S. dealt with more negative issue ads than did Korea. Such finding means that the negativity of such ads are reflective their own cultural characteristics.

It was assumed that the strategies of negative ads was influenced by uncertainty-avoidance. Researchers expected that the U.S. ads hold more the direct attack or comparison than did Korean ads. However, no significant difference was found between the two countries in the strategies of negative ads. Both nations rely more on the direct attack or comparison rather than the implied comparison.

Conclusion

This study generally identified a set of cultural dimensions that could explain the different natures of newspaper political advertising between two countries. More specifically, it demonstrated that cultural characteristics such as individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity-femininity independently or in combined form, affected differences in political ad contents(issue and image) and valences(positive and negative).

Results of the study showed that there were differences of contents and valences of political advertising between the U.S. and Korea. Also, discussions based on study results showed mixed and intertwined arguments against or for the expectations for this study. These results could probably be explained by additional intervening variables affecting such differences, which were political system differences(political party system and electoral system) and media-related factors(media ownership, media system differences, ad sponsorship and government control etc.)(Holtz-Bacha & Kaid, 1995).

Holtz-Bacha & Kaid(1995) suggest that any international comparison of political communication processes will have to take into consideration the differences in political structures and processes, in political culture, and in the media systems. These variables and their specific interrelations provide for a distinctive national background against which the regulations for political advertising, the role that political advertising can play in any given democracy is often determined by media, cultural and political system differences.

A primary limitation of the present study is that although it was conceptually based on cultural characteristics, it could not provide an ideally objective guideline for their interactions. However, the results of this study are believed to provide a helpful direction for future work. In line with this, this study focused on only two specific countries as samples. Thus, the results of this study might have a weak external validity. Also, the present research was based on only newspaper political ads to compare ad-related factors to a variety of media such as television, magazine and radio.

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A Content Analysis of Internet Banner Advertising: Focusing on Korean and U.S. Cultural Differences

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Abstract

The Web is emerging as a new advertising medium vying strongly with the more traditional media. Despite the Web's capability of becoming a potentially powerful medium, there is little empirical studies about the banner advertising in the Web.

Previous studies about traditional media have suggested that there are differences among different countries and cultures in terms of advertising types and degree of informativeness. This study focused on the banner advertising and also found the similar results as previous studies. The findings of this study suggest that there are differences between the two countries even in the banner advertisements in terms of advertising content, type, and informativeness.

Introduction

The Internet has become a viable means of communication for people all over the world in only 7 years. The number of Internet users worldwide is estimated to be 100.5 million as of the end of 1998, and by the end of the 2000, it is expected that the number will jump to 200 million (NUA 1998 at http://www.nua.ie/survey/ how_many_online/index.html). And also, the Internet has doubled in size of hosts every year from 1995 to 1997 from 6.6 million hosts to 18 million hosts in the world. As this tremendous growth in both numbers of users and hosts continues, marketers and advertisers have tried to figure out how to use the Internet as a marketing and advertising tool. For this reason, much attention has been focused on the effects of Web advertising, particularly the persuasive techniques of banner advertising. For companies who use the Internet as a secondary marketing tool and as a substitute for direct mail (Leong et al., 1998), marketers and advertisers have tried to find the most effective ways of inducing surfers to their home pages. As part of this effort, advertising practitioners are trying to find out how to increase the click-through rate of banner ads. Recommended content techniques by the practitioners is to put a call-to-action messages such as "Click-Here", arrows, or other blatant messages in the banner ads (Harris 1997; Internet Advertising Bureau 1997).

Although many studies have suggested various techniques to increase the effectiveness of banner advertising, no study has investigated the usefulness of the techniques in terms of cultural differences. As a result, the applicability of banner ad techniques, which have been developed mainly by U.S. researchers, in different countries is unknown. Even though those techniques recommended by many American advertising practitioners may be popular in U.S. banner ads because of their effectiveness of increasing “click-through” rates, their usage may be limited in Korean banner ads. For example, there are difficulties in translating one of most recommended techniques, "Click-Here," into Korean words. Even after Korean banner advertisers translate the "Click-Here" into Korean, the meaning of the message may be ambiguous because "Click" is a newly conceptualized computer terminology for most Korean people. As a result, the effectiveness of the "Click-Here" message is questionable for Korean Internet users. In addition to the issue of banner techniques, the objectives of banner ads may be different across countries. For instance, Korean marketers may focus on trial-focused advertising objectives rather than repeat-purchase advertising objectives because Korean Internet users are generally young and innovative (See Table 1).

As these examples illustrate, it is important for global marketers to understand cultural differences if they use the Internet as one of their marketing tools. To address this aspect of Internet advertising research, the present study specifically examines banner advertising in terms of the cultural differences between Korea and the U.S. Before studying the effects of banner advertising, one needs to know how banner ads are executed differently in the two countries. Without empirical documentation of actual use of banner ads in these countries, the value of further studies on the effects of banner ads will be questionable. Consequently, the purpose of this study is to collect specific information about the use of banner ads by using a content analysis procedure of web sites in the two countries.

Literature Review for Theoretical Framework

Advertising on the Internet and Banner Ads

According to Ducoffe (1996), advertising on the Web can best serve the needs of consumers and yield the sort of responses that advertisers desire. Therefore, the Web can offer consumers a variety of benefits that may increase the value of its advertising (Ducoffe, 1996). The most distinguishable benefits of Web advertising are as follows. First, Web advertising can potentially offer consumers an advantage over traditional media because it makes information immediately accessible at the right point when consumers need advertising information. Second, the information in Web ads is more relevant to consumers because consumers usually connect the Web sites that are expected to contain information they want. Third, Web ads are flexible. They can be changed quickly and easily in response to consumer needs and market changes. Finally, transactions can be executed directly by consumers in response to ads, increasing both speed and convenience of purchases or inquiries.

Berthon, Pitt, and Watson (1996) reviewed the role of the World Wide Web as an advertising and marketing communications medium. They concluded that the World Wide Web is "characterized by ease of entry, relatively low set-up costs, globalness, time independence, and interactivity" (p. 53) and can be effectively used for integrating strategy for new or existing markets.

One of the major forms of Web advertising is banner ads (Hoffman, Novak, & Chatterjee, 1995). Banner advertising is usually defined as "small graphic buttons or images containing tempting information, inviting users to click for more information" (Ellsworth & Ellsworth, 1997; p. 87). Therefore, unlike other forms of Internet advertising such as target ads, Web sites, and Web sponsorships, banner ads are used primarily as Web traffic builders (Li, 1998). Because the main purpose of banner ads is to catch consumers' attention, click-through rate has become the gauge of banner ad effectiveness, and it is assumed to be affected by banner ad content.

For this reason, many advertising practitioners have recommended several effective tools to increase click-through rates (See Table 2), and one of most recommended content techniques by practitioners is to put a call-to-action messages such as "Click-Here", arrows, or other blatant messages in the banner ads (Harris 1997; Internet Advertising Bureau 1997). According to InfoSeek's (1997) study, a 44 percent increase in click-through rates can be realized simply by giving text cues that the banner is connected to more information. That is, by literally stating the words "Click Here," or putting buttons, arrows or other blatant call-to-action messages in the banner ad, the banner ad effectiveness is dramatically improved (Harris, 1997).

Language Differences

Although these techniques have been found to be effective, they may be effective only for Western market. Even though a recent study found a 44 percent improvement in click-through rates just from providing visual or textual cues that a banner leads to more information, this technique, especially a use of textual cues such as “Click-Here,” raises a question about its standardized use in different countries. One counter-argument comes from the differences in languages. Each Asian country such as Korea, Japan, and China uses its own language, which is fundamentally different from English in terms of characters and syntax. As a result, the content technique of banner ads may be limited in its application in these Asian markets.

For example, there is no Korean terminology exactly matching the English word “click” in terms of computer vocabulary. Because the meaning of “click” has been created with the development of computers in Western countries, it has to be either translated into Korean wording or directly used as a foreign phrase for Korean people. The translated

Korean wording of "click-here" takes too much space in a relatively small banner ad size, which may limit other important banner ad messages. Furthermore, the meaning of the translated Korean "click-here" message may be awkward for Koreans. Because the English word "click" is still being assimilated in Korean, it is difficult for Korean banner advertisers to use the "click-here" technique because of the language problems.

Behavioral Dimensions: Cultural Differences

The cultural difference of behavioral patterns also can influence the effectiveness of banner ad techniques recommended by Western researchers. It has been found that culture is the most important factor capable of differentiating the behavioral patterns of the people of one society from another (Hofstede, 1991). Hofstede (1980) defined culture as "the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influences a group's response to its environment." Therefore, Hofstede called the culture "the software of the mind." Culture is also social norms and values, which are learned and shared by the members of a society. Culture influences members' behavior, their ways of thinking, their attitudes, and belief systems among people. Furthermore, culture regulates human behavior and determines whether specific behaviors are acceptable or not. As a form of social communication, advertising is considered to be particularly reflective of culture (Hong et al., 1987); thus, advertising should differ from country to country, culture to culture. A consumer who is exposed to a specific culture becomes committed to that culture's style of thinking and feeling, value system, attitudes and perceptions (Hall, 1976).

Researchers have long tried to show that advertising is influenced by culture and reflects culture. Differences found in the level of informativeness are explained and supported by the cultural differences between eastern and western countries. Hall (1976) identified context as one of the key features that distinguishes the communication style of one culture from another. He suggested two different levels of communication - high-context communication and low-context communication. Hall (1976) defined a high-context communication as "one in which most of the information is either in the physical context or internalized in the person, while very little is in the coded, explicit, transmitted part of the message. A low-context communication is defined as just the opposite; i.e., the mass of the information is vested in the explicit code" (Hall 1976, p. 79; Recited from Taylor et al., 1997, p. 3).

In a relatively high-context culture, such as Korea, messages often are indirect, and it is polite to be indirect and somewhat vague. Also, the meaning of a message depends more on the context, that is, who is speaking, what was said earlier. Therefore, in a high-context culture, people have little communication, its expression is indirect and ambiguous, and the receiver should understand the message using his/her prior knowledge. On the contrary, low-context culture has direct and easily understood communications. The message is clear, explicit, and direct. Therefore, the receiver may totally depend on the sender's message to get information. Hall describes the United States and some western countries as low-context cultures, and South Korea, Japan, and Taiwan as high-context cultures. Therefore, it can be assumed that there will be differences of directness between western and eastern countries. That is, western countries will use more direct advertising messages than eastern countries do. For example, U.S. advertisers may use more direct call-to-action messages in their banner ads, whereas Korean advertisers may avoid the use of direct messages that request immediate consumer actions. This is usually referred to as a "Call-to-Action." Consequently, Korean banner advertisers may be reluctant to employ direct action-to-call messages in their banner ads. Considering both language and cultural differences, this paper suggests the following hypothesis.

H1: The frequency of usage of call-to-action messages in U.S. banner ads is greater than that of Korean banner ads.

In addition, it is expected that global companies of the U.S. who are marketing in Korea may have difficulty in employing call-to-action messages. They may be confronted by these cultural differences without any systematic research findings to rely on. As a result, there is a possibility of mixed usage of the "click-here" in their banner ads. The following hypothesis is suggested.

H2: The frequency of usage of call-to-action messages in banner ads differs significantly among Korean advertisers, U.S. advertisers, and U.S. global advertisers in Korea.

After Resnik and Stern (1977) first started systematic investigation of information content by setting up the evaluative criteria for informativeness in advertising, analysis of the content of advertising information has been used in many cross-cultural studies to determine differences in information content. These studies have shown that the information content in advertising is different among cultures and countries (Cutler & Javlagi 1992; Dowling 1980; Hong et al., 1987; Kanso 1992; Kewon et al., 1992; Madden et al., 1987; Martenson 1987; Mueller 1987; Ramaprasad & Hasegawa 1992; Weinberger & Spotts 1989; Zandpour et al., 1992; Zandpour et al., 1994).

This difference of information level depending on cultures may be found in banner advertising. Because banner advertising is one form of advertising, it can also be used as a strategy for creating communication effects such as awareness and attitudes. According to Briggs and Hollis (1997), banner ads are found to increase effectively brand awareness even without clicking activity. Also, Mbinteractive found that simple exposure to a banner ads generated increases in advertisement awareness, brand awareness, and purchase intention (MBinteractive, 1997 at http://www.mbinteractive.com/site/iab/exec.html). If banner advertising is used as such a tool, there may be a variation in information levels between U.S. and Korean banner ads. As mentioned earlier, the cultural difference may influence the information level between the two countries' banner content. Specifically, U.S. banner ads may contain more information than Korean banner ads. Many studies have supported this idea that low-context cultures such as the U.S. send more information in their advertising than high-context countries such as Korea do. The following hypothesis is presented;

H3 : The U.S banner ads contain more information than Korean banner ads do.

Method

Sampling

One of the major problems of studying Web advertising is establishing a 'sampling procedure'. Especially when banner ads are used as the unit of analysis, it is more difficult to set the sampling frame to select banner ads randomly, because getting a sampling frame that carries all commercial web sites and banner ads is practically impossible. Another major problem related to the sampling process is that the purpose of this study is to compare the differences between two countries. Because of this purpose, there could be confounding variables if the sampling frame had different characteristics.

Therefore, the "top 10 advertising recipients" (See Table 3) in both Korea and the U.S. were used as the sampling frame. The reason for using "top 10 advertising recipients" is that first, it was easy to select the banner ads because many companies put their banner ads in those sites, and second, it was thought that those sites had more similar characteristics than other sites. After sampling frames were set for the two countries, a total of 123 samples from Korea and 120 samples from the U.S. were gathered from February to March 1999 from both sampling frames.

Data Collection

For a comparison of the "Call-to-Action Message" between the two countries, the coding sheet was developed based on Harris's definition of "Call-to-Action Message" (See Appendix 1). Also, for the comparison of advertising informativeness between the two countries, Resnik and Stern's (1977) information evaluation criteria (Table 4), which has been frequently employed as an advertising informativeness measure, were used. After the coding sheet was developed, each banner ad was coded by the authors. Both are doctoral students and have several years experience in advertising agencies. Before the data collection, training began with the conceptual sharing of various definitions between the coders related to the research variables (e.g., definition of banner ad and call-to-action message, etc.) and ended with a practice that entailed coding 20 banner ads from Web sites not included in the sample for the study. After the training and practice, the two coders worked independently and analyzed half of the banner ads (either Korean banner ads or the U.S. banner ads) in the sample. After completing each coding work, they exchanged their work, and coded the banner ads that were done by the other judge.

When discrepancies occurred, each coder reconsidered the decisions made about the ad. If the procedure did not resolve the discrepancies, they discussed and reached a final decision.

Results

For intercoder reliability, Holsti's reliability (Wimmer & Dominick, 1997) calculation for nominal data was used. Because this study focused on the differences between two countries, and because this study used all nominal variables, Holsti's reliability of nominal data was appropriate to this study. The coder reliability of each coding category ranged from .87 to .97 (i.e., .97 for action to call, .91 for purpose of ad, .87 for information cues).

Call-to-Action Message: Differences between the two countries

Table 5 shows the frequencies of "call-to-action" messages between the two countries. As expected, American banner ads use more call-to-action messages than Korean banner ads do; that is 37.4 % of Korean banner ads utilize the "call-to-action" messages in their banner ads, whereas 78.3 % of American banner ads utilized the "call-to-action" messages in their banner ads. According to chi-square analysis, this difference is statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 41.679$, d.f. = 1, $p < .01$). Therefore, hypothesis 1 is supported.

Call-to-Action Message: Differences among advertisers

Table 6 shows the frequencies of "call-to-action" messages among Korean, U.S., and international advertisers. Over half (54.5%) of international advertisers utilize the call-to-action messages in their banner ads which are placed in Korean web sites. The results of chi-square statistics show that there are significant differences among Korean, U.S., and international advertisers ($\chi^2 = 44.905$, d.f. = 2, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 2, which says that there will be differences in using the action-to-call messages among Korean, U.S., and international advertisers, is also supported.

Types of Call-to-Action Messages in Korean Banner Ads

Table 7 shows the frequencies of types of call-to-action messages in Korean banner ads. As shown in the table, Korean (67.6 %) and international advertisers in the Korean market (54.5 %) use the direct English copy for call-to-action messages in their banner ads. This result also implies that so far there is no appropriate Korean copy for call-to-action messages; therefore, advertisers use the English words directly in their banner ads.

Information Cues: Differences Between The Two Countries

Table 8 shows the average number of information cues per banner ad. As expected, American banner ads (mean = .6471) have more information cues than Korean banner ads do (mean = .4472). Using a t-test analysis, the mean difference between the two countries is statistically significant ($t = -2.538$, d.f. = 241, $p < .05$). Table 9 shows the frequencies of information cues contained in each country. The number of information cues in banner ads ranged from 'zero' to 'three.' Out of 243 banner ads, 110 banner ads (45.3%) have at least one information cue, 11 banner ads (4.5%) have two information cues, and 2 banner ads have over three information cues. As the criterion of informativeness increased to two cues in Korean banner ads, only 1 out of 123 banner ads have two cues or more. In American banner ads, 7.5% have two or more cues. Chi-square statistics show that the difference of informativeness between the two countries is statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 8.439$, d.f. = 3, $p < .05$). Therefore, hypothesis 3 is also supported - "Korean banner ads are less informative than U.S. banners ads are."

Table 10 shows the frequencies of the 14 information cues appearing in the banner ads by rank order. Seven different information cues appeared in banner ads. Special offers (22.0% for Korean banner ads, 23.3% for American banner ads) were the single most frequently used information cue in both countries. In Korean banner ads, performance and components had the same frequencies (both have 6.5%), followed by price (4.9%) and availability (2.4%). On the contrary, in American banner ads, performance (11.7%) was the second most frequently used information cue, followed by availability (5.8%), quality (5.0%), price (3.3%), and components (2.5%). Although the percentage of each information cue and the rank order of information cues are different, there are similar patterns of using information cues in banner ads. That is, both countries used the special offer, performance, components, price, and availability as the five most often used information cues, and other cues, such as research, nutrition, package, etc., did not appear in both countries' banner ads.

Other Findings

In this study, the size of banner ads (full-size banner, half-size banner, button) and type of creative (static, dynamic, animation) were also coded to see the differences between the two countries and to see whether the size can affect the usage of call-to-action message and the degree of informativeness in banner ads. Table 11 shows the frequencies of banner size according to country. Surprisingly, Korean banner ads used half-size (234 x 64 pixel) most often (54.5%), followed by full-size (from 468 x 60 pixel to 392 x 72 pixel, 36.6%) and button size (from 125 x 125 pixel to 120 x 60 pixel, 8.9%). In contrast to Korean banner ads, the U.S. used only full-size banner ads (89.2 %). Chi-square analysis showed that the difference of banner size between the two countries was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 73.927$, d.f. = 2, $p < .01$). Furthermore, there are statistically significant differences in using creative (static, dynamic, animation) between the two countries. Table 12 displays the frequencies of creative use between the two countries. Both countries are using dynamic banner ads most often; however, Korean banner ads utilize more dynamic ads than the U.S. ads do, and this difference is statistically supported by chi-square analysis (χ^2 = 13.912, d.f. = 3, p< .01).

Because the use of size and creative were different between the two countries, there is a possibility of size and creative effects over the use of call-to-action messages and the degree of informativeness. Therefore, chi-square analysis for each country itself with variables of size and creative was run again to find out whether the size and creative work were confounding variables for the difference of use of "call-to-action" messages and the degree of informativeness between the two countries. Findings show that both variables, size and creative, do not work as confounding variables for the two countries at all. First of all, in Korea, the use of "call-to-action" messages in banner ads does not differ by the size and creative of banner ads (χ^2 = 4.173 d.f.=2, p> .05 for the size, χ^2 = 3.693, d.f.=2, p> .05 for creative). Also, the degree of informativeness in banner ads does not differ by the size of banner ads (χ^2 = .895, d.f.=4, p> .05). However, the degree of informativeness does differ by creative of banner ads (χ^2 = 15.865, d.f. = 4, p< .01). This result implies that even though the degree of informativeness does differ by difference of creative and that more dynamic banner ads have more information cues than do static banner ads, there are still significant differences between Korea and the U.S. So, the type of creative does not work as confounding variable at all. In the U.S., the use of "call-to-action" messages and the degree of informativeness did not differ by the size and creative of banner ads (χ^2 = 1.120 d.f.=2, p> .05 for size and the use of call-to-action message, χ^2 = .442, d.f.=2, p> .05 for creative and the use of call-to-action message, χ^2 = 1.895 d.f.=6, p> .05 for size and the degree of informativeness, χ^2 = 5.602 d.f.=6, p> .05 for creative and the degree of informativeness).

Conclusions

An attempt was made in this study to find the differences between Internet banner advertising content of two different cultures, Korea and the U.S., in terms of message types and informativeness. It was expected that banner advertising contents in terms of message type and informativeness would be different across cultures, as was observed in many other studies on traditional media. As shown in this study's findings, there were statistically significant differences in using "call-to-action" messages and in informativeness between Korean and American banner ads.

Although advertising practice does not always reflect a theory of cultural differences, one can see that there may be a potential relationship between culture and the practice of banner advertising. One of the interesting findings is that the usage pattern of banner ads by international advertisers in Korea have somewhat mixed patterns of call-to-action messages in their banner ads. This implies that they may have trouble deciding whether they have to follow traditional tactics recommended by the U.S. practitioners or they have to use localized tactics for different cultures. Even though there has been long standing debate about which way advertising should go - standardization and localization (for example, Cutler et al., 1992; Mueller, 1987), those studies are only for marketers and advertisers who use traditional media. This exploratory study provides some insight for marketers and advertisers who use Internet advertising, especially banner advertising. Even though this study cannot show which way is better for global advertising and marketing, this study confirms that global advertisers use localization strategy in Internet advertising.

As many studies on the information content of advertising from different cultures have found that the degree of informativeness is different across cultures in traditional media, this study found that differences in the degree of informativeness in Internet banner advertising as well. This study also found that the use of call-to-action messages in banner ads is different across different cultures. The main reason for the difference could be the cultural differences between the two countries as mentioned earlier in the literature. Another possible reason for the difference in degree of informativeness between the two countries, however, could be explained by the fact that the history of the Internet in Korea is much shorter than that of the U.S. Since the Internet was introduced to Korea much later than to the U.S., and the use of the Internet as a marketing and online communication tool is not widely spread yet in Korea, Korean advertisers are more likely to use the Internet as a tool for increasing their company image rather than as a tool for marketing. Additionally, since the concept of online marketing is not as well established in Korea as it is in the U.S., Korean advertisers are more likely to focus on only presenting their web sites in the Internet to show their image of being technologically advanced compared to their competitors. In this case, it is possible that banner advertising practices such as the degree of informativeness and the strategic use of call-to-action messages are influenced by such a factor.

Interesting findings are the differences in banner ad size and creative strategy. Many studies on the information content and creative strategy of advertising from different cultures have not found a significant difference in ad size between the different cultures. A possible explanation for these findings is that even though we tried to set the sampling frame with similar characteristics, there were still some differences between the sampling frames of the two countries. Actually, in Korea, many national newspapers' web sites were included in top 10 banner ads recipients. On the contrary, in the U.S., almost all search engines were included in the top 10 banner ads recipients. This difference could cause the difference in ad size between two countries. Because almost all web sites of Korean national newspapers offer limited space for banner advertisements, they might limit the size for getting many banner ads in their web sites. Also, this study coded the banner ads into four different categories - static, dynamic, animation, and dynamic & animation. Surprisingly, U.S. advertisers used more static banner ads than Korean advertisers. Table 9 shows the differences in type of banner ads between the two countries. Korean advertisers used more dynamic banner ads than U.S. advertisers did; on the contrary, U.S. advertisers used more animation in their banner ads than Korean advertisers did.

This study found that the contents of banner ads in terms of the degree of informativeness and use of call-to-action messages are different across different cultures. Therefore, marketers and advertisers should recognize the differences among different countries and cultures and should use their marketing communication messages differently according to cultures and countries because those factors may significantly change the effects of the Internet advertising plan.

Suggestions for future studies

Several suggestions will help extend future research on Internet advertising. First of all, appropriate criteria that can measure the degree of informativeness of the Internet advertising (i.e., banner ads, target ads etc.) are needed. We used the same criteria that was used to measure the differences among countries and cultures on traditional media; however, Internet advertising is different in its type, format, characteristics, and even users compared to traditional media. So far, few studies have been done on Internet advertising. Therefore, to explore the Internet advertising more fully and accurately, there should be new measures for Internet advertisements. Secondly, we used the top 10 advertising recipients of both countries as the sampling frame for this study. However, further study needs to use a more refined sampling process when studying Internet advertising because of the problems of random sampling from the Internet. Future studies should explore the sampling process on the Internet. Finally, future study needs to investigate a causal effect of cultural differences on usefulness of banner ads in the Internet. Because this study is descriptive, the value of this study will be added by future study about a causal effect.

Table 1

Demographics of Internet Users in Korea and the U.S.

	Korea (%)	U.S. (%)
Gender		
Male	84.8	59.5
Female	15.2	40.5
Age		
Under 20	28	11
21-25	26	13
26-30	26	14
31-35	11	11
36-40	4	10
Over 40	5	38
Education		
Less than High School	4	3.1
High School	44	12.3
Some College	42	69.3
More Than College (Graduate)	10	15.3
Occupation		
Computer Related	10.2	19.4
Education Related	57.5	21.4
Management	17.6	11.5
Professional	4.5	22.0
Other	10.2	25.7

* Source : GVU Internet User Survey (1998) for U.S.
KRNIC Internet User Survey (1998) for Korea.

Table 2

Techniques Suggested by Banner Advertisers

Location	Top of the Web pages Put banners on the home page
Form	Use animation Make banner bigger Change creative frequently
Message	Offer promotional stuffs Use "action-to-call" messages
Context	Keep the ad message close to the content of the page

Source : Harris (1997), Internet Advertising Bureau (1997), Li (1998)

Table 3

Top 10 Advertising Recipients in Korean and U.S.

Rank	Korea	U.S.
1	Chosun.com	Netscape
2	Joonangilbo.co.kr	Lycos
3	Dongailbo.co.kr	Infoseek
4	Infocop Search Engine	Yahoo
5	Naver Search Engine	Pathfinder
6	Hankooilbo.co.kr	Hotwired
7	Yahoo Korea	WebCrawler
8	Simmany Search Engine	ESPNET SportZone
9	Mochanni Search Engine	GNN
10	Altavista Korea	C/Net

* Source : Korea - LG Ad Inc. 1999 (Korean top advertising recipients consist of almost all web site of national newspapers)
U.S. - University of Texas at Austin (1999) [http://www.uts.cc.utexas.edu/~wats/spending.html]

Table 4

Resnik and Stern's Information Classification System

Information Cue	Operational Definition
1. Price-Value	• What does the product cost? What is its value-retention capability? • What is the need-satisfaction capability/dollars?
2. Quality	• What are the product's characteristics that distinguish it from competing products based on an objective evaluation of workmanship, engineering, durability, excellence of materials, structural superiority of personnel, attention to detail of special services?
3. Performance	• What does the product do, and how well does it do what it is designed to do in comparison to alternative purchases?
4. Components or Contents	• What is the product composed of? What ingredients does it contain? • What ancillary items are included with the product?
5. Availability	• Where can the product be purchase? • When will the product be available for purchase?
6. Special Offer	• What limited-time non-price deals are available with a particular purchase?
7. Taste	• Is evidence presented that the taste of a particular product is perceived as superior in taste by a sample of potential customers? (The opinion of the advertiser is inadequate)
8. Nutrition	• Are specific data given concerning the nutritional content of a particular product, or is a direct specific comparison made with other products?
9. Packaging of Shape	• What package is the product available in which makes it more desirable than alternatives? What special shape is the product available in?
10. Guarantees or Warrantees	• What postpurchase assurances accompany the product?
11. Safety	• What safety features are available on a particular product compared to alternative choices?
12. Independent Research	• Are results of research gathered by an "independent" research firm presented?
13. Company-Sponsored Research	• Are date gathered by a company to compare its product with a competitor's presented?
14. New Ideas	• Is a totally new concept introduced during the commercial? • Are its advantage presented?

Resnik and Stern (1971), "An Analysis of Information Content in Television Advertising," *Journal of Marketing,* (January), 50-53.

Table 5

Differences in Action-to-Call Message Between Korea and the U.S.

	Call-to-Action Message Yes	No	Total
Korea	46 37.4 %	77 62.6 %	123 100.0 %
U.S.	94 78.3 %	26 21.7 %	120 100.0 %

chi-square = 41.679 d.f. = 1 p< .01

Table 6

Difference in Action-to-Call Messages among Advertisers

	Call-to-Action Message Yes	No	Total
Korean Advertiser	34 33.7 %	67 66.3 %	101 100.0 %
International Advertisers in Korea	12 54.5 %	10 45.5 %	22 100.0 %
U.S. Advertisers	94 78.3 %	26 21.7 %	120 100.0 %

chi-square = 44.905 d.f. = 2 p< .01

Table 7

Types of "Call-to-Action" Messages in Korean banner ads

	Korean Word	English Word	Korean Sound	Others
Korean Advertisers	1 2.9 %	23 67.6 %	4 11.7 %	6 17.6 %
International Advertisers	1 9.1 %	6 54.5 %	2 18.2 %	3 27.3 %

Table 8

Average Number of Information Cues per Banner Ad (N=243)

	Mean	S.D	t
Korean	.4472	.5154	- 2.538* (d.f.=241)
U.S.	.6471	.6711	

* p < .05.

Table 9

Number of Information Cues

	None	One	Two	Three	Total
Korea	69 56.1 %	53 43.1 %	1 .8 %	0 0 %	123 100.0 %
U.S.	54 45.0 %	57 47.5 %	7 5.8 %	2 1.7 %	120 100.0 %

chi-square = 8.439 d.f. = 3 p< .05

Table 10

Type of Information Cues Appeared in Banner Ads

Rank	Korea	n	%	Rank	U.S.	n	%
1	Special Offer	27	50	1	Special Offer	28	43.1
2	Performance	8	14.8	2	Performance	14	21.5
2	Components	8	14.8	3	Availability	7	10.8
4	Price	6	11.1	4	Quality	6	9.2
5	Availability	3	5.6	5	Price	4	6.1
6	Quality	1	1.9	6	Components	3	4.6
6	Independent Research	1	1.9	7	Independent Research	2	3.1
	Guarantee	0	0	8	Guarantee	1	1.5
	Safety	0	0		Safety	0	0
	Taste	0	0		Taste	0	0
	Nutrition	0	0		Nutrition	0	0
	New Ideas	0	0		New Ideas	0	0
	Package	0	0		Package	0	0
	Company Research	0	0		Company Research	0	0
	Total	54	100			65	100

Table 11

Difference in Banner Ad Size Between Korea and U.S.

	Full	Half	Button	Total
Korea	45 36.6 %	67 54.5 %	11 8.9 %	123 100.0 %
U.S.	107 89.2 %	8 6.7 %	5 4.2 %	120 100.0 %

chi-square = 73.927 d.f. = 2 p< .01

* Full size: Range from 468 x 60 pixel to 392 x 72 pixel
Half size: 234 x 64 pixel
Button size: Range from 125 x 125 pixel to 120 x 60 pixel

Table 12

Difference in Types of Banner Ads

	Static	Dynamic	Animation	Dynamic & Animation	Total
Korea	21 17.1 %	90 73.2 %	0 0 %	12 9.1 %	123 100.0 %
U.S	36 30.0 %	72 60.0 %	6 5.0 %	6 5.0 %	120 100.0 %

chi-square = 13.912 d.f. = 3 p< .01

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Appendix 1. (1) Evaluation Form of *Korean* Banner Ads Content

Ad No : [ ]

URL :____

Company Name:__________________________________

Brand Name: ____________________________________

1. Type of Banner ads

1) Only to induce into Home page (specify what was offered__________________)
2) To increase communication effects (i.e., category need, brand awareness, and brand PI)
3) To facilitate promotion (specify what the promotion was____________________)

2. Use of Action-to-Call Messages (e.g., "Click-Here")

1) Yes 2) No

3. If yes, what copy was used in the ad?

1) Korean meaning of 'Click-Here' category 2) Use of English 'Click-Here' category
3) Korean sound of 'Click-Here' category 4) Others (specify)________________

4. Size of Ad

1) Full Banner (468x60 Pixel) 2) Half Banner (234x60 Pixel) 3) Button (120x60)

5. Creative

1) Static 2) Dynamic 3) Animation 4) Dynamic + Animation

6. Information Cue

(# of cues)

Price or Value
Quality
Performance
Components or Contents
Availability
Special Offer
Taste
Nutrition
Packaging or Shape
Guarantees or Warranties

Safety
Independent Research
Company Sponsored Research
New Idea

Total

Sneak Attack: Exploring the Effects of Nike and Reebok Sponsorship on Two College Athletic Programs

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Sneak Attack: Exploring the Effects of Nike and Reebok Sponsorship on Two College Athletic Programs

Abstract

Corporate sponsorship of sporting events isn't new. These alliances go back more than 100 years. Today, it's become so popular among marketers that now there are more sponsors than sporting events. Therefore, athletic shoe and apparel companies have turned to sponsoring premier athletes and teams to show off their products.

Recently, athletic brands have taken aim at college campuses, ushering in a whole new form of corporate involvement. This study focuses on how corporations use college athletes and their teams to sponsor their products, using two sponsorship schools, Syracuse University (Nike) and Xavier University (Reebok) as case studies. The findings show a powerful and meaningful association between college sports and brands of athletic shoes. But more importantly, this paper points to the plusses and minuses of this relationship, but a most profitable and powerful advertising relationship.

Sneak Attack: Exploring the Effects of Nike and Reebok Sponsorship on Two College Athletic Programs

Corporate sponsorship of sporting events isn't new. These alliances go back more than 100 years, with the first advertisements appearing in the official program of the 1896 Olympics. Yet, the real growth and the pervasiveness of sports sponsorship, with its over abundance of commercial sponsors peaked in 1984 at the Summer Olympics in Los Angeles (Stotlar, 1993). L. A. was reacting to the sizable financial losses suffered by Montreal who hosted the 1976 Olympic Games. And unlike Montreal, Los Angeles decided that its ledger sheet would not come up short. So this cities' Olympic organizers decided to bring on the sponsors -- and that they did. There's been no turning back. Today, it is estimated that companies such as IBM, Coca-Cola, McDonald's, Eastman Kodak, Visa and Reebok have shelled out a minimum of $40 million each in cash and services for the world-wide rights to align their names and get the world-wide exposure with the most recent Nagano Winter Games and the Summer Games in 2000 in Sydney, Australia (Beatty, 1998).

But the Olympics Games are just one of the many sporting venues that corporations pay the big bucks to sponsor. There's NASCAR, World Cup Soccer, Major League Baseball, the Women's National Basketball Association, golf tournaments, tennis tournaments, and ice skating exhibitions & competitions. Sports sponsorships have become so popular among marketers that new sporting events are actually being conjured up to meet this escalating demand, like the Extreme Games.

Big promoters, such as those who make athletic shoes and clothes, not only sponsor events, they sponsor entire teams, as well as star athletes. One of the early and true fans of sports sponsorship was Nike. Nike's No. 1 corporate philosophy has been supporting the athlete (Copetas, 1998). Basically, this support translates to paying athletes to wear Nike shoes. When Nike signed Michael Jordan as an endorser in 1984, the marketing practice of using star athletes as shoe salesmen took the sports world by storm.

Today, it's routine practice for athletic shoe and apparel companies to sponsor premier athletes and teams to showcase their products. All major professional teams currently affiliate with at least one of the top athletic shoe and clothing makers. And, with guaranteed multi-million dollar television contracts for each major sport, sponsors can seize big audiences with their splashy commercials. But the exposure doesn't stop there. Powerful athletic brands have muscled their way into the locker room by plastering their logo on everything from shoes to warm-ups to sweatbands to uniforms. This has turned the players themselves into action-packed, nonstop ads.

In recent years, however, athletic brands have taken aim at college campuses, ushering in a whole new form of corporate involvement. A top-ranked college team has become a vital advertising medium for the likes of Nike and Reebok. Advertising placed here translates to sales --big sales. In 1994, for example, colleges generated an estimated $2.5 billion in retail sales for products bearing their names, logos and mascots. This was more than the National Hockey League or Major League Baseball earned. Nike and Reebok, the primary leaders in the athletic shoe category, have long battled in the marketplace for position and market share. But now, these rivals have turned to college campuses, battling it out for their rightful place on college athletic teams.

Previous research in this area has focused primarily on the benefits of sports sponsorship for corporate: exposure or on the general nature of "event" sports marketing. But there has been no research that has exclusively explored the relationship that these athletic shoe manufacturers are forging with college athletes and college athletic programs. In other words, what are the effects of such partnering? What are the advantages and disadvantages for the colleges, athletes, coaches, student fans and marketers of such partnerships? These two fundamental questions drove this study. Two sponsorship schools, Syracuse University (Nike) and Xavier University (Reebok) were used as case studies as a means to explore the value of these sponsorships from the college, as well as the marketer perspective. This exploratory study aims to serve two purposes: It will compare and contrast the effects of corporate sponsorship on these two college athletic programs; and it will explore the influence the sponsorship has on purchase behavior among athletes, students and fans, and the retailers who support this consumption.

Pre-game Warm-up: Overview of Sports Sponsorship

Sporting events as a marketing tool are extremely popular because they appeal to the masses across all classes. Take a look at the Super Bowl. In today's overly fragmented media world, where one-on-one marketing is increasingly more common, where else can an advertiser plunk down $1.3 million and buy such an massive diverse audience?

Opportunity like these are few and far between. Furthermore, look at fan loyalty. Sell-out crowds swarm stadiums and arenas in Ann Arbor, Green Bay, Lawrence, Denver, Lexington, Chicago, Lincoln, Buffalo, and Knoxville to root for the home team. There's so many sporting events, cable channels such as ESPN, ESPN2, and Fox Sports have popped up on our already crowded cable service to serve rabid fans, who want even more sports, 24-hours a day. Following the recent high stakes negotiations for television rights to NFL football, there's no doubt this is big business - BIG business.

There's also no wonder why sport sponsorship is such an attractive alternative communication tool for corporations. In 1984, when sports sponsorship seemed to explode during the Los Angeles Olympic Games, major brands were already shifting above-the-line expenditures (main media advertising) to below-the-line promotions (Jones, 1992). Brand proliferation and main media audience fragmentation creating too much clutter on the shelves, not to mention too much advertising. At this time, brands searched for ways to stand out among the competitive pack - to be the MVP of a category. Previous research has shown that by aligning a brand image with a sports image, the overall brand is enhanced (Martin, 1994). Furthermore, major sports - both professional and amateur - receive extensive media coverage - radio, television, newspaper and magazine. This allows brand marketers the opportunity to stretch their general advertising dollars by being part of sporting events, thus securing coveted media exposure that they don't actually have to buy. For example, it was estimated that the top sponsors in NASCAR's Winston Cup Series gained an of averaged $4.9 million in television exposure alone for the 1992 season (Stotlar, 1992). This not a small factor to Winston, a tobacco product. Because of this TV exposure, Winston, gains the opportunity to get its advertising message on television.

The growth and objectives of sports sponsorship is well documented (Wilson, 1998; Pope, 1998; Abratt, Clayton & Pitt, 1987; Abratt & Grobler, 1989). Therefore, it is not necessary at least for this discussion, to reproduce this overview here. What is important, however, is to include a working definition of sports sponsorship, an overview of the two brands under investigation, and a clear identification assumptions proposed in this research as to why these two brands are moving into the arena of amateur sports sponsorship.

For this study at least, Pope (1998) has provided the most useful definition of sports sponsorship. It is as follows:

> **Sponsorship is the provision of resources (e.g., money, people, equipment) by an organization (the sponsor) directly to an individual, authority or body (the sponsee), to enable the latter to pursue some activity in return for benefits contemplated in terms of the sponsor's promotion strategy, and which can be expressed in terms of corporate, marketing, or media objectives.**

Pope (1998) identifies three broad objectives that are basic to how corporations evaluate the effectiveness of sports sponsorships. For starters, corporate objectives are image-based, and as such, the association increases brand awareness. Therefore, it is an excellent communications tool to reinforce the corporate or brand image by aligning that image with a successful sports team or athlete.

Secondly, marketing objectives focus on promoting the brand and essentially increasing sales of the brand. The sponsorship offers two potentially powerful markets - those that participate in the sport and those that are spectators. Both markets are affected by the hero persona of the top athletes who endorse sports products and as a form of idolatry and mimicry, the hero wannabe's purchase the products worn by the stars. That makes the cash register ring.

Finally, the media objectives are realized by the opportunity for extensive and somewhat exclusive television exposure. The media from these sponsorships is more cost-effective than buying 30 seconds of air time during the event. When Michael Jordan and the Chicago Bulls played on television, it's basically a three hour commercial for Nike. In summation, a sports sponsorship is undertaken to benefit all participating parties in some way. This is not a philanthropic gesture on the part of corporations - it is a strictly commercial venture. And Nike and Reebok both reap the benefits of sports sponsorship and are masters at it. In fact, some would credit Nike for creating the phenomenon that now seems so common place.

And Now a Word From Our Sponsors: Background Analysis of Nike and Reebok

Among the 1200 U.S. brands tracked annually by advertising agency Young & Rubicam, Nike ranks among the top ten - among Coca-Cola, Disney and Hallmark (Lane, 1996). The Nike "swoosh" is so familiar, that sneakers and other company products no longer need to carry the name - just the logo. Phil Knight, CEO and founder of Nike, has made sneakers a disposable consumer good and transformed them into a status symbol. He makes shoes that are "cool" and makes it "cool" to be a Nike consumer (Lane, 1996).

Knight, himself an athlete, saw the value in aligning his shoes with teams and athletes early on. "Nike would not sell shoes but the athletic ideals of determination, individuality, self-sacrifice and winning," it has been reported (Lane, 1996, p. 42). He began to sponsor athletes, one of the first being track star Steve Prefontaine, who he paid to wear Nike shoes in 1973. Nike sales were less than $3 million in 1972. By 1980, sales hit $270 million and in 1986, sales swelled to a record $1 billion. But the running craze was fading, aerobics were taking center stage, and rival Reebok forged ahead. That's when Phil Knight the marketer became unleashed.

When Prefontaine died suddenly in 1975, Knight looked for a successor to fill the "Nike-guy" persona. He found it in Michael Jordan, who was talked out of an adidas deal to sign with Nike in 1984. When Reebok pushed into the No. 1 position, Nike used Jordan as a means to introduce shoes for other sports and the rest, as they say, is history.

Today, the Beaverton, Oregon-based Nike controls almost half of the athletic shoe market share with 47%, and sales totaling $3.77 billion in 1997. The company operates eleven retail stores (Niketown) and sells its shoes and apparel in 20,000 retail outlets in the U.S. In an annual survey by the *Sports Marketing Letter,* Nike ranked as the most widely recognized corporate sponsor in sports (Most Recognized, 1998). Its roster of superstar athlete endorsers include Tiger Woods, John McEnroe, Andre Agassi, Pete Sampras, Scottie Pippen, Michael Johnson, Deion Sanders, Carl Lewis, in addition to the venerable Jordan. Nike spent $1 billion for sponsorship and marketing activities in 1997 (Griffith, 1998).

Reebok, while the number-two athletic shoe manufacturer, is a distant No. 2, both in sales and spending. In 1997, Reebok's U.S. market share totaled 16% with nearly $1.28 billion in sales (Saporito, 1998). Compared to Nike's $1 billion in spending, Reebok spent $420 million in sponsorships and marketing (Griffith, 1998). While Reebok is currently re-evaluating its endorsement contracts and has announced that it will move away from athlete endorsements, historically they have been playing catch up with Nike.

Knowing that head-to-head competition with Nike and adidas would be difficult, Reebok looked to the aerobic-shoe market. The company's introduction of the Freestyle aerobic oxford in 1982 coincided with the increased popularity of aerobic exercise. The Freestyle became one of the best selling shoes in history, giving Reebok its first, and only market share lead over Nike. Reebok sales went from $3.5 million in 1982 to $919 million in 1986. In 1985 Reebok USA acquired the original British Reebok company.

While Reebok advanced athletic shoe technology, corralled a stable of superstar athletes (Saquille O'Neal, Allen Iverson, Emmitt Smith, Clyde Drexler, and Shawn Kemp), and outfitted thousands of Olympic athletes, the company could not sustain its leadership position. Reebok's market share and profits declined after 1987, while Nike's rebounded and continued to soar.

While all athletic shoe manufacturers have depended on professional athlete endorsers - Nike was the leader in moving into the college system. As early as the '70s, Nike hired recruiter Sonny Vaccaro to deliver college coaches to the roster of endorsers. Nike would pay coaches at high-profile schools in exchange for their teams wear Nikes. John Thompson of Georgetown was one of the first signees, supposedly earning as much as several thousand dollars in the early 80s (Reynolds, 1998). Today, Thompson sits on the company's board of directors. Coaches such as Florida State's Bobby Bowden receives $225,000 per year in addition to his salary and Duke's Mike Krzyzewksi makes $1 million-plus from his Nike shoe contract (Armstrong, 1997). The $1 million salary of University of Utah coach Rick Majerus reportedly includes $500,000 from Reebok. In fact, Majerus was considered the hot prospect for the coaching job at Arizona State following his second-place finish in the NCAA tournament last year. While Majerus was very interested in the job, reports were that he could not accept it because of his long-term contract with Reebok. Arizona State is a "Nike" school.

Aside from the coaches contracts, the more recent development is for schools to cut deals with the shoe company who then have the responsibility and the cost of outfitting the school's entire athletic department. Hence the label - "Nike" school. In addition to Arizona State, Duke, Georgetown and Florida State, Nike has partnered with such colleges as Penn State, Illinois, Michigan, Colorado, North Carolina, and Miami. Florida State's deal is worth $6.2 million in cash, equipment and apparel for the 17 varsity teams over the next five years. Michigan's deal gave the school $8 million in cash and equipment over six years; Colorado will receive $5.6 million over six years and Penn State's deal provides $2.6 million over three years.

Reebok was again behind the leader in lining up colleges, but it has built an impressive roster of teams, adding sponsorships with UCLA, Texas, Iowa, Michigan State, Wisconsin, Boston College, Louisville, Georgia Tech, Iowa State, Kansas State, Brigham Young University, as well as Utah.

The X's and O's: Research Assumptions

There are many supporting reasons for this commercialization of college sports. The strongest ones being:

1. College merchandise is profitable. Sales of college products generate more than $2.5 Billion. Items that are worn by players and coaches during the games have become popular with fans and with the sponsorship contracts, Nike and Reebok get a percentage of those sales. This is especially true for shoes. The average American teenager now buys ten pairs of athletic shoes a year, six for specific sports, four for fashion. For Nike, that translates into 6 million teenagers buying over $1 billion worth of Nike shoes (Lane, 1996).

2. The sponsors have exclusivity, providing elements of market by market domination. Geographically, they have strategically placed themselves as part of the hometown team - often times dominating the local market and establishing brand dominance at a grassroots level. The sponsorship of local teams and local athletes resonants more with the loyal fans. Awareness and loyalty are created and enhanced. In fact, its similar to spot TV buying. Nike and Reebok sponsor local teams and instead of purchasing local air time - they get multiple exposures each time the team plays - whether the game is broadcast or not.

3. The alignment with the nation's largest, most visible, most successful college athletic programs, provides the companies authentication of their brands, which in turn sells more product. By association, when the team is a winner, the brands are winners because the triumphant teams wore Nike or Reebok.

4. As market competition increases and products are harder to differentiate, the association with college teams provides a point of difference for the athletic shoe manufacturers. Instead of buying Nike or Reebok, teens purchase the shoe that the home team wears, or the jersey of their favorite player.

5. Colleges and universities are facing increasing costs and fewer funding sources for not only athletics, but other programs. Becoming a "Nike" or "Reebok" school provides not only an influx of cash, but a cost savings by not having to purchase uniforms and equipment for various varsity sports programs.

6. With national brands such as Nike and Reebok, colleges and universities benefit by getting their merchandise to more retailers and a broader distribution network. This generates more money for the universities in licensing fees and increases the national exposure of not only the athletic programs, but the universities themselves.

This study will look closely at two such sponsored college athletic programs - Syracuse University (Nike) and Xavier University (Reebok). Both schools have top 25 basketball programs, with strong win-loss records. These teams are from mid-size private universities, and while they appear annually in post-season tournament play, are not powerhouse college sports entities as some of those named previously. The research will explore how each sponsorship is organized, and what this relationship means to the program, to the coaches, to the players and ultimately the fans - the student body.

The Game Plan: Research Method

This research is designed as a case study of two sponsored athletic programs. The case study has been described as the means for exploring an entity or phenomenon (the case) bounded by time and activity (a process or event), wherein the researcher collects detailed information by using a variety of data collection procedures during a sustained period of time (Creswell, 1994; Yin, 1994). It is a respected research method, especially when the objective is one of exploration (Yin, 1994), which is the intent of this study.

The purpose here is to seek a broader understanding as to how these sponsorships function at the college level and what, it any, effect the sponsorships have on the athletic program, its coaches, players and fans. Therefore, to gain this greater insight, two schools were chosen as cases, which allowed for a broader perspective and the opportunity to study both the uniqueness and commonality of two sponsors and two programs. Furthermore, the multiple-case design is often preferred as it offers the opportunity of comparisons and quite often provides more understanding and more compelling data (Yin, 1994; Stake, 1995).

As suggested by Stake (1995), access to the case(s) is key in order to maximize what can be learned. Therefore, Syracuse and Xavier were selected for the case studies due to the accessibility of resources. As researchers, the first obligation then was to seek complete understanding of these two cases. This entailed obtaining multiple views, as well as descriptions and interpretations. As in most case study research, the interview then becomes the main technique to gaining these multiple realities (Stake, 1995). In-depth interviews were conducted among coaches, players, and retailers as a means of gaining different perspectives of the sponsorship effect. In addition, this provided a cross-check mechanism to support interpretations gathered from other data and observations.

Data gathering was structured to provide a thorough understanding of what was happening with these two cases. Following an extensive review of the literature, the coaches of the two schools were interviewed first. Semi-structured interview schedules were developed as recommended for a multi-case study (Marshall & Rossman, 1995; Stake, 1995). Although it was not the desire of the researchers to impose rigid controls on the interview process, it was important to ensure that certain topics were covered across all interviews as two researchers were conducting separate interviews for each school. However, the interviews were open-ended enough to allow the respondents to add perceptions and interpretations to the process. Once the coaches data was transcribed and coded, interview schedules were developed for the players and retailers. Six players from each team were interviewed as were the buyers/managers from the respective university bookstores.

From this data, a questionnaire was designed for administration to the general student body of each university. The instrument contained separate sections representative of the factors regarding the student's awareness of the sponsorships, involvement in sports, and attitudes and purchasing opinions as they are influenced by the sponsorships. These sections included questions regarding sports involvement - both active and passive, purchase behaviors, awareness of college sponsorship, spending amounts, and brand awareness. The five-page closed-ended questionnaire was administered to students across each campus (Syracuse n=109; Xavier n=110). Descriptive statistics were generated from this questionnaire and are included in the results section of this paper.

Once the data was gathered, the researchers employed triangulation protocols for validation of interpreting results (Stake, 1995). First, investigator triangulation was used as one researcher would analyze the data collected by the other. Interpretations were then discussed and coded by both. Data source triangulation was used as a means to verify if what was being observed and reported in one case, was also evident in the other. Finally, interviews were conducted with sports journalists. The journalists had observed the practice of sports sponsorship from a different perspective. In this way, the researchers could determine if their interpretations were similar to those of other observers. Stake (1995) refers to this as theory triangulation. This not only served to validate some of the interpretations, but were helpful in providing alternative meaning to the understanding of these cases.

The Line Ups: Coaches Findings

The Syracuse University Orangemen are members of the Big East Conference, one of the preeminent basketball conferences in the country. The SU men's basketball team's first season sates back to 1900-01 with an all time won-lost record of 1,482-192. Big East games are televised on ESPN every Monday night, ESPN2 every Tuesday night, and CBS on the weekends. In addition, the Big East has its own television network that regionally televises games to various east coast markets. Syracuse plays its home games in the 33,000 seat Carrier Dome on the SU campus. The team wears Nike shoes; and Nike also makes the team's uniforms which display the Nike swoosh on them.

The Xavier University Musketeers are members of the Atlantic 10 Conference, which has recently emerged as one of the top basketball conferences in the nation. The XU men's basketball team's first season dates back to 1919-20, although the program was suspended during the war from 1943-45, but was reinstated for the 1945-46 season. The all time won-lost record is 991-791. Atlantic 10 games are not televised on a set basis on national TV, but they do appear on ESPN, ESPN and ABC at various times throughout the season. Cincinnati's ABC affiliate WCPO schedule includes eleven locally produced games, eight of which are part of the Atlantic 10. The Musketeers appeared o national television five times during the 1997-98 season. Xavier plays its home games at the Cincinnati Gardens which seats 10,400. The team wears Reebok shoes; and Reebok makes the team's uniforms which display the Reebok logo on them.

To be a Nike coach, at least for Coach Jim Boeheim, means that you are one of the top coaches in basketball. His outstanding 22-year record as SU's head basketball coach, where 20 of these have been winning seasons, has secured him a solid place among the coaching elite. Coach Boeheim has been with the SU basketball program for 35 years, starting as a walk-on player who finished his college basketball career as a co-captain alongside the former NBA star, Dave Bing in 1966. In his senior year, Boeheim averaged 14.6 points per game, becoming the 10th player in Syracuse history to score more than 400 points in a season. Boeheim returned to Syracuse as an assistant, after spending four years in the Eastern League in Scranton, playing on two championship teams and earning second team all-star honors. In 1976, Boeheim was named head basketball coach, and in his 22 seasons, he's gone on to win 74.5% of his games. His 502-172 record makes him the winningest coach in SU history. With 17 NCAA tournament appearances, 27 NCAA tournament wins and two trips to the Final Four, Coach Boeheim is ranked among the top 10 active coaches in the U.S. He's led his Orangemen to 10 straight NCAA tournament appearances which is the fourth longest streak of all time, tying him with Mike Krzyzewski and Dale Brown. In 1993, Coach Boeheim became only one of three Division I basketball coaches ever to win 400 games in less than 17 seasons. And, he won both his 350th and 400th games faster than any coach in college basketball history. Coach Boeheim is one of the nation's premiere coaches that gives the Nike swoosh national TV exposure and constant trips to the winner's circle.

To be a Reebok coach, like Coach Skip Prosser, means that success has followed you throughout your coaching career at different high schools and universities. In just four years, as Xavier's head coach, coach Prosser has racked up an impressive record with a 81-34 record, three 20-win seasons, and three NCAA tournament berths. coach Prosser has ignited fans, breaking attendance records in each of the four years he's been at Xavier. He was named the 1996-97 *Basketball Times* Mideast Coach-of-the Year and NABC District 10 Coach-of-the Year. Prosser has coached in 11 NCAA Tournaments in 12 years, including seven in eight years as an Xavier assistant, one in one year as Loyola's head coach, and three in four years as Xavier's head coach. Prosser came to Xaiver as an assistant in 1985 after an illustrious thirteen-year coaching career on the high school level in Wheeling, West Virginia. As the varsity head coach at Linsly Institute, Prosser racked up an impressive 33-9 record. Taking over as head coach for six years at Central Catholic High, Prosser racked up more success with a 104-48 record and a State AA Championship. Coach Prosser's long-running success and lively playing style on the floor translates to large local attendance and exposure for Reebok.

Xavier and Syracuse share very different sorts of relationships with each of their respective shoe companies. At Xavier it's a simple partnership between Reebok and the coach. And, at Syracuse, it's a more complex association between Nike, the entire school and it's various athletic programs, says Coach Prosser. Nike schools account for a mere handful, according to Coach Prosser, with "Michigan, North Carolina, Duke, Georgetown and Florida State," the most recognizable. At Xavier, the men's baseball team, women's basketball and volleyball teams all use Reebok. However, the relationship with the Reebok company rests primarily with the men's basketball team.

Syracuse and Nike go back 20 years. Premium products landed Nike on SU's basketball courts back then, and this exceptional quality keeps them there today. Coach Boeheim switched from Pony to Nike in 1978, because, as he says: "Nike came up with a better product and because my players liked Nike the best." And, it's Nike's superior products and outstanding service that keeps Coach Boeheim renewing his contracts with Nike every three to five years. To Coach Boeheim, Nike's quite simply the best, which has resulted in a long-term relationship with the brand. When asked about all the benefits that can be had from an affiliation with Nike which of these are most beneficial to his school, Coach Boeheim is emphatic about two major plusses when it comes to Nike: "They have the best product and service." Perhaps this is why Syracuse has remained a loyal Nike fan for two decades.

Xavier, on the other hand, came over to Reebok just four years ago when Coach Prosser came on board as head coach. Xavier had been a Nike school back when Coach Prosser was an assistant, "probably 8 or 9 years," says Prosser. "When I came in, I decided it was time for a change," states Prosser.

Competition, exclusivity, service, and ethical corporate practices were all factors that Prosser considered when deciding on whether to stay with Nike or move to Reebok. "Reebok was very aggressive in recruiting us -- I felt like they really wanted us," says Prosser. The University of Cincinnati, a larger school than Xavier, with a strong men's basketball team, and situated in Xavier's backyard, is a Nike School. Coach Prosser felt that Xavier would be in the shadow of the University of Cincinnati when it came to Nike. Coach Prosser also felt that if the University of Cincinnati and Xavier were both Nike teams then "XU wouldn't get any attention." Focusing on service and exclusivity, Coach Prosser decided "it was a good time for a change." Compared to Nike, Coach Prosser felt that Reebok, with a regional office in Cincinnati would be more accessible. Weighing the two shoe giants, it came down to which company could offer Coach Prosser and his players the better deal. Reebok was the shoe manufacturer that came through with the best offer. Coach Prosser accepted the deal and considers the union between Xavier and Reebok first-rate. Prosser says the relationship between Xavier and Reebok is good and that the company "is very accommodating." Coach Prosser's first Reebok contract was for three years. So pleased with the service that this shoe company has provided, he's recently negotiated another contract -- this time for seven years.

According to Coach Prosser, here's how the deal was struck: "Reebok asked to make a proposal. Nike countered. I visited with the Athletic Director and he said it was my decision. And, that's who (Reebok) I wanted."

The quality of Nike's equipment was never called into question by Xavier, as Coach Prosser points out, "Nike has good shoes. We had no problem with them. But, I felt like Reebok was more committed to us. Whenever we need anything, they are right there."

The business practices of both companies were also weighed by Coach Prosser, and to him, Reebok came out on higher moral ground, as he recounts: "I think Reebok has a better standing record on human rights and plays on a higher moral plane -- and that's important to me as well."

Both coaches say it was ultimately their decision to affiliate their teams with their chosen athletic shoe company. There are more layers to the process at Syracuse than there is at Xavier. However, Coach Boeheim describes the negotiation process as "easy and short." This is who is involved in the negotiating process at Syracuse: Ed Janka, head of College Hoops represents Nike; Coach Boeheim negotiates for himself; and Jake Crouthamel, SU's Athletic Director, bargains for the athletic department. Coach Boeheim negotiates contracts every 3 to 5 years, and says "this is pretty much the industry standard."

The contractual obligations that exist between the two basketball programs and the two shoe companies are similar: both coaches are obligated to wear items that display the company name or logo; both shoe manufacturers are obligated to provide players with shoes, equipment and uniforms; and both coaches speak at clinics that the shoe companies sponsor.

Both coaches feel that their shoe sponsors are very good to them and their players, athletic programs and schools benefit from these alliances. "Reebok is really good to our kids," says Coach Prosser. "Reebok outfits our kids from head to toe. Obviously that means more than just sneakers." Coach Boeheim's players get everything from shoes and uniforms to equipment, and to Coach Boeheim his players, too, are treated very well because "they get the best stuff."

Free clothing and gear financially benefits both universities. "This outfitting saves the university thousands of dollars -- and its clothes that the players need," points out Coach Prosser. The athletic program and Syracuse University benefits from this affiliation according to Coach Boeheim because: "The athletic program gets a lot of free equipment. And, the school benefits by saving on expenses."

Syracuse and Xavier basketball players are expected to wear uniforms the shoe companies provide. "There is no obligation, however, for SU players to wear Nike," states Coach Boeheim. "My obligation with them is that we wear the logo on our uniforms --on and off the court," says Coach Prosser.

Both coaches are required to wear items identifying their respective shoe company in some way. Coaches Boeheim and Prosser both dress in coats and ties for the games. Since they must display their sponsoring shoe company in some way, they do so as Coach Prosser does: "Now I could wear a Reebok shirt, starter jacket, etc., but I prefer a coat and tie, so I just wear a lapel pin with the Reebok logo."

Shoes don't sway kids to come and play sports for specific colleges according to these two accomplished coaches. Neither Nike or Reebok sponsorships affect recruiting according to the coaches. Coach Boeheim recognizes that "some say (Nike benefits) recruiting," but adds, "I don't think it affects recruits." Coach Prosser agrees, "Recruitment isn't much of a factor. Kids come here to play basketball, not because of what kind of sneakers they are going to get to wear. It's about what our program has to offer them."

One of the real benefits of being a Reebok school is that it makes small schools, like Xavier, feel like it gets the same type of star treatment that's showered on the big, prestige programs. Reebok makes Xavier feel special, desired, respected. "We're a top 25 basketball team," Prosser states, "but we're probably one of the smaller schools involved in this. We're not the powerhouse programs like Michigan." But Coach Prosser's Musketeers, with their winning record and big-city location, earn high marks in Reebok's book, and as a result, red-carpet treatment, as Prosser notes: "Nike certainly has more exposure, but I thought Reebok would provide us some differentiation. And, they treated us better. I wanted to be special; and, we're more important to Reebok than to Nike." Thanks to Reebok, the players come out the real winners, says Prosser, because "they get visibility, treated first-class and special."

The biggest benefit the Syracuse Orangemen pluck from the Nike sponsorship goes back to the exceptional quality associated with this outstanding brand. Without any hesitation, Coach Boeheim pounces on a point made earlier, saying that the biggest benefit of being a Nike school compared to other athletic shoe affiliations is acquiring "the best product and superior service" for his program and players.

So what do athletic shoe companies --from Nike to Reebok, from adidas to Fila -- get from aligning their products with high caliber programs, players and coaches? These two coaches say its strong marketing. "The players themselves become the ad medium," Coach Prosser says. And the exposure they glean for Reebok, Nike or any shoe company is in the big-time sports media, as Coach Prosser outlines: "The perception is that it helps Reebok to be associated with a Top-25 school" because "(Xavier) players make it on the pages of *Sports Illustrated, ESPN Magazine, USA Today* or in the NCAA tourney." And all of this high-profile exposure, according to Coach Prosser, comes at a fraction of the cost of paying for all of the time and space through advertising. " It's a lot of exposure that isn't quite the cost of advertising." Athletes are a cost effective media vehicle it seems.

This exposure can be national, as is the case of Syracuse, or local, like Xavier. But either way, the shoe companies' marketing programs benefit from this penetration, as Coach Prosser states: "Of course, we're not on national television as much as many other schools, so our exposure is often really limited to right here in Cincinnati. But with the University of Cincinnati being a Nike team, Xavier can provide exposure for Reebok that they wouldn't have in Cincinnati otherwise." And a winning record, ratchets up the overall efficiency of this local media penetration, as Coach Prosser states: "When we're winning -- that makes it even better."

College sports and athletic shoe companies are a winning combination when it comes to marketing. Coach Boeheim credits college sports for helping boost Nike's big bottom-line. Surveying Nike's impressive marketing record, Coach Boeheim says that "Nike's market share went up by just doing colleges." Colleges came before "the extravagant marketing campaigns," says Coach Boeheim, and "that's why Phil Knight wants to keep these relationships."

By splashing logos, brand names and other brand signatures on players and coaches, shoe companies are aiming to reach a lucrative and impressionable audience of youngsters. These kids, who range in age from 5 to 18, strive to look and act like the "cool" college players wearing the name-brand shoes. Coach Boeheim believes that the SU basketball players influence not only these young kids, but "people in the community and fans." And the bottom line, according to Coach Prosser is for these companies "to sell shoes." Using college athletes to promote shoe sales is just one way these companies can survive in a competitive marketplace. Here is how Coach Prosser sees Reebok boosting sales thanks to his Musketeers: "The shoe business is very competitive. And they (Reebok) are trying to sell shoes to junior high kids. Reebok has the perception that if Xavier players are in Reebok shoes and clothing then some junior-high kid is going to want to be in Reebok shoes and clothing."

High-visibility college athletes help build sales in local markets; and the professional athletes provide national coverage for these shoe companies. "They can sell shoes, t-shirts, etc. right here in Cincinnati," says Coach Prosser, "maybe not all over the country, but they can get them right here in Cincinnati. It's a 'win-win' situation all the way around. We get kids in sneakers and so does Reebok."

The coaches benefit financially, although neither would say by how much. Overall, both coaches are very pleased with their sponsoring shoe companies. "I'm very happy with the results, enthuses Coach Prosser. "I've already negotiated another contract," he says.

On The Court: Players' Reactions to Sports Sponsorship

Part of this exploratory study included in-depth interviews with 12 varsity men basketball players. Six players from each school took part in this study. The athletes were interviewed following their appearances in the 1998 NCAA Tournament. The purpose of these interviews was determine what Nike means to SU basketball players and what Reebok means to Xavier basketball players, in terms of: the relationship that exists between these brands and these college athletes; their perceptions of these brands; their use of these brands' shoes and apparel-- both on and off the court; their insights into what effect these brands have on athletic recruitment, sales and the community.

These dozen athletes have been playing basketball for a big chunk of their young lives. The six Syracuse University players say they've been playing basketball between 6 and 15 years. Xavier players, like the sport just as much, if not more so, saying that they've logged six, to an astounding, 18 years playing the game. All these athletes played basketball in junior high, with the majority of them lacing up Nike sneakers to hit the courts. While in junior high, five out of the six Xavier players wore Nikes to play junior-high ball, with one player wearing adidas. Four Syracuse players wore Nike, two donned adidas and one put on Converse. Nike went right along to high school with these players, with five Xavier players wearing Nike in high school and one choosing adidas. In high school, two of the Syracuse men wore both adidas and Nike, two wore Nike exclusively and two men went with Converse.

Xavier players say spectators and fans know that the shoes they are wearing are Reebok shoes thanks to the company's logo that appears on the uniforms and the shoes. Athletes say that the logo is "big enough on the shoes" so that spectators can see what brand they are wearing. One Xavier player says "The emblems are so big, how could anyone miss it." All six SU players say that spectators can readily recognize that SU is a Nike school because of the swoosh logo. " They can tell by the swoosh, it's the most famous thing about Nike," says one SU player.

Xavier players are expected to wear suits and ties when they come into the arena to play. Thus, they are not expected to actually wear Reebok shoes and apparel to the games. On the road, however, the players can wear Reebok clothing. SU players don all sorts of Nike apparel, including: uniform, wrist bands, spandex, socks, sneakers, shorts, top, shooting shirts, T-shirts under uniform, tights, and warm ups. One SU player says that the Nike name is "written on everything we wear."

Every Xavier player wears Reebok clothing to class. And, all of the SU players wear Nike apparel to class, although some wear it more frequently than others. "Yes, that's all I wear," says one SU athlete. All twelve of the athletes wear everything: sweatshirts, t-shirts, sweatpants, warm up suits, socks, hats, jackets, and shoes to school. Only one Xavier athlete wears Reebok clothing to class about half of the time, the other five wear Reebok apparel two-thirds of the time. When attending class, three of the players wear Nike half of the time and the other three players wear it all the time. The majority of SU athletes (4) wear Nike shoes and clothing to the mall and parties. Two SU athletes wear Nike apparel and shoes some of the time to socialize at the mall or at parties. Xavier athletes wear Reebok stuff off the court because it is free, looks nice and represents the school. SU players wear Nike stuff for the following reasons:

"I just like Nike. They make good stuff. They make stuff for bigger athletes, and their clothes fit better."

"Everybody's wearing it

"Nike stuff is comfortable. Nike is hot."

None of the Xavier players feel that the Reebok sponsorship played a role in their decision to play for XU. "I just wanted to play," says one XU player. Two of the SU players said that the Nike sponsorship had a "little bit of influence" in their decision to come to Syracuse. But none of them said that shoe sponsorships had any impact on their final decision on where they would play college ball. And the major advantage to being a Reebok school, according to Xavier players, is that this shoe company gives XU players more attention than they would get from any other brand. All but one of the SU players thought it was advantageous to be a Nike school. And, these are some of the advantages SU players see from being a Nike school:

"Nike dresses teams the best."

"Kids like Nike the best. If I see pro's wearing it, it gives us reason to buy it."

"We get the latest Nikes."

"It persuades other recruits."

"Some other recruits do look at it because it's the most popular brand."

All six SU players believe that a Nike sponsorship is the most prestigious, because, as one player says: "Nike is out there and known which helps a lot." Two Xavier players agree that Reebok is the most prestigious sponsorship in the college world, because the company is starting to land more college. Two say Nike is the most prestigious. And two say, "No, Reebok is not the most prestigious sponsorship."

Every one of the six varsity basketball players from Syracuse want to be involved with Nike in some way after they graduate. One SU player wants to be a Nike sales representative, another wants to be a Nike coach, and other have set their sites on the pros and want to wear Nike clothing when they are in the big leagues. The SU athletes are fiercely loyal to the Nike brand and want this relationship to continue long after they leave Syracuse, saying:

"Yes, I want to keep wearing the clothes, maybe be sponsored by them."

"I want to work with them. Perhaps set up Nike deals with sports. I like sports. Sell the clothes, or have a contract."

"I would like a contract to wear their clothes, or work for Nike or coach at a Nike school."

"I would advertise Nike if I could. I will always wear Nike products. Given the opportunity, I would work for Nike."

After graduation, five of the Xavier players would like contracts from Reebok and one would like to land a Nike deal.

Syracuse athletes feel that Nike wants to sponsor schools like SU because of its winning program, the strong coach, the talented athletes, intense media exposure, loyal following and high status.

The SU players explain why Nike continues to affiliate with the Syracuse basketball program:

"If people see top athletes wearing Nike, they will also wear Nike."

"Syracuse is a good program, a winning program. When you're winning, you get more exposure which helps Nike."

"SU is a national power and on TV. People will want to wear Nike."

"SU is on TV a lot. It has a known head coach. The team is good. People watch SU a lot so they'll see what we got on. "

Five of the Xavier players feel that they definitely influence kids into buying and wearing Reebok shoes and clothing. XU players relay how they see this sales relationship working:

"Kids want to mimic their favorite players. When they see us on TV it sells jerseys."

"Sure, they see us on TV -- they recognize us and that sells shoes."

Definitely, they see our faces all the time during tournament coverage. They can't help but see what we are wearing."

Sure, because of all the TV time and because we are always wearing new shoes -- they want the shoes we have."

"Because of TV time, they are able to recognize the shoe. There's extended time. Kids can go into the wall of shoes at a store. And thanks to seeing it on us, it's easier for the kid to recognize styles and that tends to make kids want to buy it."

Only half of the SU players thought that they influenced kids into buying and wearing Nike shoes and clothes, with the common sentiment being: "yes, kids see us on TV, see us wearing Nike stuff. They want to emulate us, so they go buy Nike stuff."

The other three SU players thought kids had more of a mind of their own, and as such, were not easily influenced by college athletes. Two of these athletes had this to say:

"Kids don't wear Nike stuff because I wear it, but because other famous people wear it."
"Kids buy it because of style, not because I wear it."

From the Stands: Survey Results From Students

Students from both universities were surveyed to understand if and why they wear branded athletic gear and what influences their purchase decisions. The questionnaire was administered to a total of 219 undergraduate student. The students (82%) were between the ages of 18 - 20 and 45% were freshmen, 34% sophomores, 10% juniors and 5% seniors. Female students accounted for 59% of the respondents. Among Syracuse (63%) and Xavier (43%) students, Nike was considered the "coolest" athletic shoes, adidas was second with 30% and 35% respectively and Reebok lagged far behind at .9% and 2%. Phil Knight was indeed succeeded in making and maintaining the "cool" of Nike among these two groups of students.

These students are sports-minded. They are involved in sports, both as spectators and participants. More than three-fourths of them (77%) play some sort of recreational sport, with nearly one-fifth of them (18%) being college athletes themselves. College athletes taking part in this study are involved in a variety of varsity athletics: basketball, football, cross-country, lacrosse, soccer, volleyball, swimming, tennis and track. In addition, 90% watch professional sports, predominantly basketball and football. When asked to identify their favorite professional athlete, 55% listed Michael Jordan and those who identified him as such, 100% could recall that he wears Nike shoes. As the numbers suggest, these students, who are attending universities, where sports are a visibly part of the campus scene, have made sports an active part of their own lifestyle. They play sports, watch sports, and admire the exceptional athletes who are at the pinnacle of their games. These two groups of students are true fans of the sports world.

A significant 61% of the students say they attend university basketball games, with an impressive 82% reporting that they are aware that the basketball program is sponsored by a brand of athletic shoes. Of those, a majority (72%) of the Syracuse students could correctly identify Nike as the athletic sponsor and 61% of the Xavier students could identify Reebok as the basketball team's sponsor. Just about all of these students head off to the Dome or the Gardens to see their Orangemen or Musketeers do battle against rival teams. Little wonder then that many of these true fans of the game know which shoe company sponsors their hometown team. They've seen the swoosh or the Reebok name for an extended period of time over the entire season. Therefore, the exposure to players who actually become the ads has been an effective device in generating awareness of the Nike and Reebok brands, one of the major objectives of sports sponsorship.

The students surveyed also act as walking billboards for the athletic brands they routinely wear. These students wear and purchase branded athletic gear, clothing with the school's logo, name, insignia and/or mascot on it, to show support for the home team. Forty-two percent wear branded hats regularly, 64% wear athletic brands of shorts, 66% don athletic brands of sweatshirts. But t-shirts and shoes come up the real winners. And step over penny loafers and mountain boots, because this crew chooses athletic shoes almost exclusively to wear, with a staggering 92% saying they wear some type of sports shoe on a regular basis.

In the last twelve months, approximately two-thirds of the students have purchased branded athletic gear. The items that were purchased most often were hats (33%), sweatshirts (43%) and t-shirts (58%). Of those who made a purchase in the past twelve months, 54% of the Syracuse students purchased Nike products, 40% purchased a Champion product. Among Xavier students, 44% purchased Champion and only 33% purchased a Reebok branded item. The campus bookstore is the number-one place where all the students (59%) most often shop for athletic clothing, with the local sporting goods retailer ranking second (18%). Students may be buying at the bookstore because of convenience, in terms of location and due to the fact that students can charge bookstore purchases to their bursar's account. But whatever the reason, they are buying and according to the bookstores - that's the real benefit of these athletic program sponsorships - the cash register rings.

In the Bonus: Retailers Reaction to Branded Merchandise

The real payoff of these sponsorships comes in overall sales of product that these two schools reap. Based on the student survey results, interviews were conducted with the buyers of the Syracuse (Gale Youmell) and Xavier (Nikki Eubanks) bookstores. Student survey responses also indicated that purchasing occurred at a local sporting goods retailer. Xavier does not have such a retailer that focuses on just university merchandise, but Manny's, which is very close to campus, is a mainstay in athletic wear in Syracuse. Frank, the manager of Manny's for eight years, was also interviewed to gain another perspective on the role of sports sponsorship, and product sales.

Xavier's relationship with Reebok is relatively new, unlike the Nike/Syracuse partnership which is one of the oldest college sponsorship programs. The Xavier University bookstore is owned by Follett's, a national entity which owns and operates hundreds of college bookstores across the country. The Syracuse bookstore is owned and operated by this University. Therefore, Gale Youmell works for Syracuse University and Nikki Eubanks works for Follett's.

Xavier athletic wear, primarily basketball related, has always been available in the bookstore. However, this was the first season that Reebok gear has been available. The attempt was made to carry it last year, but the timing didn't work out. Orders were placed, but due to the long lead time required, delivery couldn't occur in time for basketball season. This is important at Xavier, because basketball is the leading varsity sport and the peak sales period for athletic merchandise. Clothing sales account for 17% of the Xavier bookstore's annual sales; 70% of those sales occur during basketball season.

Another difference between the schools is that Xavier University is approximately half of the size of Syracuse University. With a smaller target market, Xavier must limit the number of items that are offered. In addition, they are held to a 1,000 piece minimum on all Reebok orders, which makes it financially and logistically difficult to carry a plethora of Reebok styles according to Eubanks. The bookstore limits the merchandise to two jackets, two t-shirts and the replicas of the basketball players' uniforms. All other clothing merchandise is purchased through Gear, Jansport and Champion - all of which do not have the minimum order requirement.

Eubanks concedes that Reebok is a difficult supplier. While Reebok offers many styles of merchandise, the minimums make it impossible for Xavier to carry any more than a few. And the bookstore can only place orders from Reebok twice a year, providing little margin for errors in judgment. But Eubanks understands that Xavier is a very small school for Reebok - probably one of the smallest on Reebok's college roster. Eubanks explains.

> **It's really a gamble for them with Xavier. We're just not that big a deal. Until now - when we're winning and gaining a national reputation - retailers finally are interested in Xavier merchandise and that helps Reebok. But before, retailer's like Dick's, McAlpins and Penney's just weren't interested. I mean we're not Georgetown. We're not going to make any great impact on Reebok's sales. We don't make a difference.**

So, why bother with the hassles of Reebok when other manufacturers sell just as well, if not better? Because, Eubanks says, it's what the students and fans want. "They want what the players wear, and that's Reebok," she says. If not for the sponsorship, the bookstore would not carry Reebok merchandise. Their other vendors are nicer, more accommodating and act like they really want the bookstore's business. But because the Reebok logo appears on the basketball uniforms, students and fans want what the players have.

Students buy at the bookstore, fans purchase at the Cincinnati Gardens, the home court of Xavier basketball and where the bookstore sells merchandise at games. The top selling item is the Reebok pullover jacket. While it is not identical to the players warm-up jackets - its similar enough to be popular and the Reebok logo is prominent. The uniform replicas are popular as well, but again Reebok's limitations hinder that popularity. Reebok only produces one jersey with a number of a player. This year, Xavier chose #12, Gary Lumpkin - a popular player. But the real star of the team turned out to be the sixth man - James Posey - #41. According to Eubanks, "Everyone one wanted that jersey and we didn't have it and couldn't get it." Again, no margin for error. But there is no question as to what number is being ordered for the upcoming season, #41.

The most popular number at Syracuse is #44- the number of legendary athletes that range from Jim Brown to Derrick Coleman. But Syracuse had the same problem with trying to pick the star basketball athlete. The choice was Todd Burgan, the emerging star was Etan Thomas. Other similarities are evident between the two schools and the relationship with the athletic sponsors. Basketball is the prime selling season, Nike is a difficult vendor, orders can only be placed twice a year, and the variety of merchandise is limited. However, Syracuse purchases about 5 - 15 items per season and minimums are not an issue here.

While the SU students are purchasing gear at the bookstore, the fans are buying at Manny's. Manny's is less than a block from campus and is in route from the parking lots to the Dome - Syracuse's athletic home for football, basketball and lacrosse. Sales are driven by the cold weather, the big games, fan loyalty and winner teams. According Frank, the manager, Manny's is the only local retailer licensed to sell official Nike Syracuse clothing other than the SU bookstore. Therefore, Manny's must pay a 7.5% royalty to the University for every piece of Syracuse clothing sold. While Frank prefers to work with Champion and feels that Champion makes a better quality product for the money, he is positive about the relationship with Nike. Nike is a big asset according to Frank. "It's a strong name that has grown in prestige due to effective advertising," he claims.

Gale Youmell from the Syracuse bookstore echoes that sentiment. She has witnessed Nike's popularity grow over the past 3-4 years and believes that it's the Nike style, fit and design along with "terrific" advertising that helps pull the product out of the bookstore. The bookstore has their own "Niketown" as such with all the Nike merchandise displayed in one section of the store with Nike fixtures and signage. It makes quite a statement.

Youmell believes Nike is a good seller because it offers students what they want. That includes producing designs and styles that are popular and fit the students active lifestyle, the clothing wears well and it is reasonably priced. Furthermore, by wearing official Nike Syracuse apparel, the students can show enthusiasm and pride in representing the University. But Youmell is adamant that the overriding effect of Nike's appeal is that students want what the players have. "There is a direct effect between what the players wear and what the student buys," she claims. "Whatever is seen on the players on TV should be available in the bookstore," she adds. "That's what the students want." That is effective advertising.

At the Buzzer: Conclusion

This exploratory study aimed to show what it means to be a Nike-sponsored school compared to being a Reebok-sponsored school. By conducting in-depth interviews with coaches, athletes and retailers, and then following up with a student questionnaire, we found that sponsorship of college sports provides a powerful and meaningful association for a few brands of athletic shoes. But more particularly we found that the effect of sports sponsorships have some definite plusses and minuses when it comes to college sports and athletic shoe companies. All of the people we whom we talked to were actively involved, to a varying degree, in some aspect of sports at their universities. And as such, all these people taking part in this study have a vested interest in maintaining a strong relationship with the college, not to mention the brand. In other words, it may have been difficult for each of these groups to be critical of the alliance that exist between their college and its sponsoring shoe company when so much is at stake. For example, the coaches and players are the beneficiaries of these alliances and are given, in the cases of the coaches big checks, or in the case of the players free shoes. The retailers, too are part of this alliance and have the potential to land sales. The students are part of the university and may show their loyalty by attending games and donning university apparel. So, to summarize these overall findings of this study and, at the same time, add more objectivity to these concluding remarks, we called upon some "outsiders" who scrutinize, analyze and report on the world of sports - both on the national and local scene.

Bob Costas, NBC sports commentator was interviewed. David Ramsey, head writer for the Syracuse Orangemen since 1985 for the Syracuse newspapers also provided a more critical and introspective view of the sports sponsorship and college athletics. These seasoned sports journalists provided commentary that allowed for a more critical examination of our results, which will now be discussed.

1.) Nike is synonymous with sports sponsorship. Nike is the undisputed leader in the highly competitive athletic shoe category. Students surveyed for this study ranked Nike No. 1. The athletes emphatically stated it is the most prestigious brand. Bob Costas says that "Nike is the powerhouse of all of them. The other brands don't come close." As Costas says, "Reebok and adidas are considerable, but Nike transcends them all." They are the most influential, a world-wide giant. It's becoming "Nike World." And this new world order, where the star brand is more popular than the world's reigning athlete as Ramsey contends: "Nike is bigger than Jordan - the swooshes are powerful - beloved, especially by kids."

And no wonder awareness is so high on college campuses, because as Costas says, "Nike is omnipresent. There is this sense that Nike is one of the dominant factors in the sports world." This prominence comes directly out of Nike's deep pockets, according to Costas. "They pay the money, and now its built on itself. And now, they have the image and the prestige." A prestige that Costas says is only bestowed on our nation's most hallowed sports franchises:

> **You know, Nike is a name that has oomph to it in sports, like the New York Yankees has oomph. The Yankees have a different oomph than the Texas Rangers. And the Chicago Bulls have a different level of oomph than the Sacramento Kings. And Syracuse has a different level than Georgia State. But Notre Dame has a different level yet. Nike wants to be in all the places where the prestige is. Where the popularity is.**

2.) College athletics has exploded in recent years. College sports has become highly visible, top players defect to the pro's, and as such, these venues are becoming increasingly more attractive to sports sponsors. The results of this study show that major companies are willing to spend major dollars to get maximum exposure from winning teams and coaches. Students are sports fanatics and retailers are riding the wave of this new trend. Ramsey, a 13-year veteran of covering the Big East Conference says that "college basketball has exploded in growth." And with this growth has come financial deals that were "basically unheard of back in 1985. The coaches are now rich," he says, "making over $1 million a year." The pressure the company asserts on the court is far more formidable now than it ever used to be, Ramsey observes. This is evidenced with all players having to wear company issued uniforms and shoes. Ramsey recalls that SU basketball legend Earl "the Pearl" Washington did not wear Nike. He wore Converse. "This wouldn't happen today. It's not evil," says Ramsey, "but it's not pure. And what it shows us is that an athletic program can be bought by a big company," he states.

3.) Players are part of a lopsided compensation system where the coach gets the big rewards, yet players, especially at SU, love the brand of shoes that sponsors their team. They do not want the relationship with the brand to cease after their college playing time is up.

Under the current system, where the majority of coaches take all, Costas says, "the kids don't benefit because they can't realize any financial benefit. And getting free shoes isn't enough," in Costas' mind. "I guess you could say that the kids benefit in that they get Nike shoes or Reebok shoes, but I wasn't aware that these kids were playing barefoot before these companies existed anyway."

The students get shoes and the coaches get the money as Costas explains:

> **If you are the coach of a prominent team, and you agree to outfit your team in Converse or Reebok, or adidas or Fila or Nike, then that's worth a great deal of money. But YOU get that money.**

But some schools are modifying this policy, and dispersing the money made from sports sponsorship in a more equitable way. As Costas observes:

> **Now some universities have rules that say that a percentage of a coach's endorsements have to go to the university: the athletic department or directly to the university. So, if you pay coach X a million dollars to have his team outfitted in Nike, maybe under that deal he can only half and the school gets half.**

Costas believes the current system is exploitive.

> **We've got a situation now in sports, in college sports where so much money is involved, that coaches, even the best coaches - people of integrity, decent people, they're in a situation that if they took a step back from it, they'd realize that it's out of whack. The players make no money, so in a sense, even if they are legitimate students, the university is exploiting them and they are exploiting the university. The best players are exploiting the university, they are using them as an auditioning place for the NBA or for the NFL.**

4.) The college basketball players have become a powerful form of advertising that delivers the impressionable target audience of youngsters with no waste, high reach, major impact and cost efficiency. Players actually become the ad medium. When asked whether college athletes help sell shoes and clothing, Costas responded by saying, "By being billboards. To the extent that it is recognizable, that any prominent, well-liked athlete is wearing Nike, Reebok or whatever - they are helping to sell." And unlike a 30-second spot, or a mere page of advertising, sports sponsorship is, as Ramsey states, "Terrific advertising for shoes. They have a two-hour spot on network TV. It's very cost effective."

The kids are who these manufacturers want to reach and college sports seems to be the perfect way to go. The journalists agree here. "I think the shoe companies influence kids from grade school to high school," Ramsey explains. "Males from 6-27 year-olds are the prime target and all the kids want Nike." The shoe companies put out new models of shoes every year which is extremely important to children. Ramsey has observed that "when you are younger, you want something new." Athletes, he said, become a "fashion guide post" to impressionable youth in search of a look and individual style.

Costas agrees that college athletes have the greatest influence on kids, but not just any kids. "It's the ones", as Costas points out, "who want to wear the same kind of cool equipment that people they think are cool and accomplished wear." And Nike has the "coolest" duds.

In addition, college sponsorships give shoe companies heavy regional emphasis with potentially high national reach. College athletes have an impact on the local market. As Ramsey explains, "College sports provide a great local marketing strategy." He claims that "Todd Burgan (an SU player) can be considered one of the five to six best known players among kids in Syracuse." So, he delivers the Syracuse market. Then, when the college has a state-wide presence, such as Utah, Texas, Nebraska and Tennessee, the local college athletes are capable of delivering the kids audience across the state. As the teams move on to national tournament play, the reach grows to a national level.

5.) These arrangements with college athletic programs are a tremendous advertising venue for Nike and Reebok, and the investment pays off. Not only are the respective logos seen by thousands in the stands, several hundred thousands more are watching on television. Overall, the sponsors have built significant brand awareness by the associations with these teams The effect, at least in the cases of Xavier and Syracuse, appears to be that these non-stop advertisements are producing brand loyalty and sales.

Returning to Pope's (1998) three main objectives of how to evaluate the effectiveness of sports sponsorship, it would seem that the Nike and Reebok partnerships with these two athletic programs has been effective. First, in terms of supporting brand image, awareness is not only increased, but enhanced by the winning traditions of the two teams. Second, marketing objectives are realized as a result of the powerful endorsements of top college athletes which parlay desires into sales among students and fans. Third, the media benefits are enormous as these alliances provide extensive and exclusive market coverage as well as national exposure.

Finally, the sports sponsorships of Syracuse University and Xavier University are beneficial to the respective schools and athletic programs. The universities have found a new money source to fund not only athletic, but various programs across the campus. The teams align themselves with popular, image-laden brands. The coaches are compensated for that alignment financially, and the players are rewarded with a wardrobe of the most popular styles of athletic clothing while receiving special and exclusive attention from the industry's top brands. Students and fans, who are the real sports enthusiasts, can purchase and wear the most popular brand of athletic apparel while supporting the home team. And retailers find the sponsorships lucrative as the brand/school association pulls products off the shelves and puts money in the cash register. As Xavier Coach Prosser stated earlier, this is a "win-win situation." And in sports, winning is everything.

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Advertising Division

Qualitative Evaluation of Print Ads by Assessors Using the Creative Product Semantic Scale

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Qualitative Evaluation of Print Ads by Assessors Using the Creative Product Semantic Scale

The advertising industry regards creativity as an essential component for success in the marketplace. The goal is to create "big ideas" that set brands apart from their competitors. The big ideas transform into advertisements using art, headlines, and text.

However, what does creativity mean in advertising? Do advertising professionals agree on measures of creativity? Do advertising professionals judge advertising creativity in the same way as the public? The purpose of this study was to measure experimentally how advertising creativity is judged, and whether those judgments differ between groups.

The purpose of the study was to ascertain:

1. Whether advertising professionals judge advertising in the same way as a group of college students who have had no advertising training.
2. Whether other factors such as age, gender, education, race, and region where one lives significantly affect judgments about the creativity of advertising.

General Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

H_1: There will be no significant difference in the evaluation of print ads by ad professionals and undergraduate students.

H_2: There will be no significant difference in the evaluation of print ads based on demographic variables.

Literature Review

Creativity has no generally accepted definition. It has often been discussed in terms of the four facets of creativity (Altsech, 1995; MacKinnon, 1987; Kneller, 1965):

1. The product or outcome of creative behavior.
2. The creative process.
3. The creative personality.
4. The environmental and cultural influences on creativity.

Parnes (1975) said the essence of the concept of creativity was the notion of "aha," which is "the fresh and relevant association of thoughts, facts, and ideas, into a new configuration which pleases, which has meaning beyond the sum of the parts, which provides a synergistic effect" (p. 225). Kneller (1965) said creative thought is innovative, exploratory, and venturesome. Risk and uncertainty stimulate it. Noncreative thought, he said, is cautious, methodical, and conservative.

Barron (1988) contributed what he called the "ingredients of creativity," which include:

1. Recognizing patterns
2. Making connections
3. Taking risks
4. Challenging assumptions
5. Taking advantage of chance
6. Seeing in new ways (Barron, 1988, p. 78).

Creativity in Advertising

Blasko and Mokwa (1986) defined advertising creativity as "mental resolution of contradictory ideas" (Altsech, p. 14). According to Amabile (1982, p. 1001), a product is creative to the "extent that appropriate observers independently agree it is creative." Typically, "appropriate" observers are advertising "creatives"--copywriters and art directors-- who produce advertisements and vote to bestow industry recognition such as the One Show, Clio and Addy awards. Taylor et al's (1996) research comparing advertising strategies common in France and the United States suggests that definitions of creativity differ across culture.

Film producer David Puttnam says "very good creative work falls into the area of problem solving" (Fletcher, 1992, p. 13). Bell (1992) describes advertising creativity as a "kind" of creativity different from the "concept" of creativity. He said the creativity needed in advertising is problem-solving creativity, constrained by marketing objectives, competition, and the organizational approval hierarchy, among other things. Flandin et. al (1992) describe the functional role of creativity in advertising as focusing customer attention on the brand and ultimately leading to its purchase.

Measuring Advertising Creativity

Much of the research about advertising creativity has focused on it from the perspective of the advertising professional. According to Flandin et. al (1992), professionals conduct research as to whether or not proposed advertisements are interesting, likable, understandable, and believable. The assumption is that a creative product will "work" (p. 207). Yet, Altsech (1995) posits the consumers' judgment of "creative" advertising to be important and relevant as "domain-specific knowledge." In other words, experts may not have the last word, consumers do (p. 17). Regardless of the perspective, the judge of the creative product needs an instrument by which to measure creativity.

Subjects in Altsech's (1995) quasi-experimental study of advertising creativity rated advertisements on 65 items related to originality, appropriateness or relevance, liking, and excitement or boredom (p. 29). Altsech's factor analysis of the 65 items identified 14 terms related to originality and five related to appropriateness. The following terms are related to originality: different, unusual, original, unique, rare, innovative, unexpected, imaginative, ordinary, typical, common, predictable, novel, and nonconformist; the following terms are related to appropriateness: inappropriate, irrelevant, inadequate, fitting, and confusing (p. 33). According to Altsech, originality in advertising can be defined as "novelty, unusualness and unexpectedness; the same terms applicable to creative products in general" (p. 27). Early studies suggest creativity to be a function of originality and appropriateness (p. 9). MacKinnon (1970) said appropriateness "must serve to solve a problem, fit the needs of a given situation; accomplish some recognizable goal" (p. 24). Altsech concluded from his study that creativity and originality are synonymous, but that appropriateness is a "qualifier" for creativity (p. 42). That is, assessment of originality and creativity may be discounted if an advertisement does not fit the product or audience.

Method

Population and Sample

The samples were drawn from two populations: college students in introductory mass communication survey courses, and professionals working in advertising agencies. A total of 189 students participated in the study, 121 of them from two classes at the University of South Dakota, and 68 from one class at the State University of West Georgia. A sample of 43 advertising professionals consisted of 25 individuals from three ad agencies in Sioux Falls, South Dakota, and 18 individuals from two agencies in Atlanta, Georgia.

Twenty-eight percent of the college students were communication majors. The rest were majoring in a variety of disciplines. None of the students had yet taken an advertising course. Subjects were demographically diverse. The average age was 20.5 years, 51% were female and

49% male, 88% were Caucasian, 6% African American and 6% identified themselves as Asian, Hispanic, or multi-racial.

Twenty-one percent of advertising professionals identified themselves as account executives, 60% work in creative services, 12% in agency management, and the rest in other functions. The mean age of professionals was 32.5 years, 52% were female and 48% male, 95% were Caucasian and 5% African American. Sixty-nine percent of the professionals had bachelor's degrees, 5% had completed some graduate coursework, and 5% had completed a graduate degree. The rest had completed some college coursework.

Procedures

Subjects were given two booklets. One included the subject consent form, instructions, and assessment forms. The other was labeled "Advertisements" and contained high quality color photocopies of 15 ads that were selected from the following 12 consumer magazines that appeal to various demographics: *Travel America* (June 1997), *Redbook* (July 1997), *Cooking Light* (July 1997), *Today's Homeowner* (May 1997), *Family PC* (Jul/Aug 1997), *Hunting* (May 1997), *Ladies Home Journal* (July 1997), *Home* (July 1997), *Better Homes & Gardens* (May 1997), *Weight Watchers* (Mar/Apr 1997), *People* (July 14, 1997), and *Time* (July 14, 1997).

Each issue was searched for full-page general-interest advertisements. Ads were sought that were not age or gender specific. Ads that promoted a variety of products, represented a variety of styles, and used a variety of colors, fonts, and appeals were identified. Approximately 35 ads fitting that description were chosen, and the list was narrowed to include a range of ads from various categories (three food, three beverage, three health/personal care, two garden, two pet, and two automobile). One ad had to be discarded and replaced with a substitute because it could not be adequately reproduced using color-photocopying technology.

Subjects were asked to evaluate each advertisement using the 15-item Creative Product Semantic Scale, and to provide demographic information for analysis purposes.

Measurement

The Creative Product Semantic Differential Scale (CPSS) was used to assess creativity. The scale is based on the standard principles of semantic differential and was developed by researchers at the State University College at Buffalo (Besemer & O'Quin, 1986; O'Quin & Besemer, 1989) to judge creative products. Russell (1991) used the scale to judge creative problem solving by elementary school students. Smith (1993) used it to judge the creativity of ideas produced by problem solving groups.

The CPSS is similar in purpose to the instrument used by Altsech (1995) to measure advertising creativity. The CPSS, however, measures the dimension of how well crafted the creative product is, or how well executed, as well as originality and appropriateness. Subjects rated the advertisements by circling a number ranging from 1 to 7 that best described the ads in terms of bi-polar adjectives. For example, an ad was judged as to whether or not it was "appropriate" or "inappropriate." A rating of "4," halfway between 1 and 7, would indicate a neutral response. A rating of "1," closest to the "inappropriate" side of the attribute, would indicate the strongest association with the negative aspect of that attribute. A rating of "6," close to the "appropriate" side of the attribute, would indicate a strong association with the positive aspect of the attribute.

The complete CPSS uses 55 items on a 7-point scale. The 55 items are divided into three dimensions: novelty, resolution, and elaboration and synthesis. The three dimensions, in turn, are divided into 11 subscales. The subscales associated with the novelty dimension include original, surprising, and germinal. The subscales associated with the resolution dimension include valuable, logical, and useful. The elaboration and synthesis dimension contain five subscales, which include organic, elegant, complex, understandable, and well-crafted.

Each ad was printed on a separate sheet and clearly linked with a particular evaluation sheet that was used to judge it. Ads were printed in random order. The order of the CPSS scales was also random, using computer-generated random ordering. Eleven of the 15 evaluation scales were presented to subjects in positive to negative order. The other four were presented in negative to positive order to discourage evaluators from going down the list of items and marking all items with one rating. Before statistical analysis was conducted, adjective pairs were ordered negative to positive, and corresponding numbers transformed in the order of 1 to 7.

The following is a list of the dimensions, subscales, and individual items from the revised CPSS (O'Quin & Besemer, 1989) used in this study:

Novelty Dimension

Original Subscale

over used-fresh

predictable-novel

usual-unusual

unique-ordinary

original-conventional

Resolution Dimension

Logical Subscale

illogical-logical

makes sense-senseless

irrelevant-relevant

appropriate-inappropriate

adequate-inadequate

Elaboration and Synthesis Dimension

Well-Crafted Subscale

skillful-bungling

well made-botched

crude-well crafted

meticulous-sloppy

careless-careful

While only three of the eleven subscales were used, representing a total of 15 items, all three dimensions of creativity were represented. Karen O'Quin, one of the originators of the instrument, recommends using an abridged version of the CPSS. The longer instrument, she said, was very fatiguing to evaluators and yielded little improvement in results over using a shorter version (personal communication, February 24, 1992). In addition, not all subscales are applicable to all creative products.

Mean scores were calculated for each item and one-way analysis of variance tests were calculated to determine judgment differences between students and advertising professionals. In addition, the 15 items were reduced to three constructs, termed subscales by the originators of the instrument (original, logical, and well crafted). One-way analysis of variance tests were conducted on the mean scores of both the individual adjective pairs and the subscales to determine differences between students and advertising professionals.

The experimental treatment, CPSS instrument, and instructions to the subjects were pretested on a group of 14 university students who evaluated them for clarity of instructions. Slight modifications were made to the questionnaire before proceeding with the study.

Analysis and Results

Evaluations by Students and Professionals

There was a significant difference in the evaluation of advertisements by college students and working advertising professionals. Students gave the Minute Maid Orange Juice ad the highest rating, while professionals ranked that ad 4th. Students and professionals agreed on three of the top five highest rated ads, though they ordered them differently. They agreed on only two of the five middle ranked ads, and on four of the bottom five. The differences were tested using one-way analysis of variance, and the difference was found significant ($F = 10.70$, $p < .01$). A chi-square test of the rankings confirmed that there were significant differences ($DF = 14$, $p = .663$).

There were not, however, significant differences for all three subscales. Judgments of the ads using the original subscale, which measured the attributes original-conventional, novel-predictable, unusual-usual, unique-ordinary, and fresh-over used, were not significantly different ($F = 2.02$, $p > .05$). The logical subscale, which measures the attributes appropriate-inappropriate, logical-illogical, makes sense-senseless, relevant-irrelevant, and adequate-inadequate, showed significant differences between the two samples ($F = 5.68$, $p < .05$). The greatest differences were for the well crafted subscale, which measured the execution of the ads with such attributes as well crafted-crude, meticulous-sloppy, skillful-bungling, well made-botched, and careful-careless. The differences were very significant ($F = 16.08$, $p <.01$).

Professionals and students agreed on the originality of ads, but disagreed on measures of logic and well craftedness. And, overall, their judgments were different. Hypothesis H_1, which posited that there would be no differences in the judgments of the two groups, was rejected.

Table 1

Rankings of Ads by Students and Advertising Professionals

Advertisement	Student Ranking	Mean Ratings	Prof. Ranking	Mean Ratings
Minute Maid Orange Juice	1	5.389	4	5.173
Atrovent Nasal Spray	2	5.254	7	4.722
Off Citronella Candles	3	5.120	2	5.343
Plymouth Breeze	4	5.092	5	5.129
Hershey's Syrup	5	5.028	6	4.897
General Foods International Coffees	6	4.941	3	5.205
Absolut Vodka	7	4.893	1	5.513
Purina One Dog Food	8	4.801	8	4.691
Ortho Weed-B-Gon	9	4.562	9	4.521
Subaru Outback	10	4.549	12	4.130
Kibbles 'n Bits	11	4.543	10	4.309
Neutrogena Sunblock	12	4.423	13	4.044
Comforel Pillows	13	4.251	15	3.549
Gardenburger	14	4.238	11	4.132
Ro-Tel Diced Tomatoes	15	4.201	14	3.576

$\underline{N} = 189$ $\underline{N} = 43$

Demographic Variables

One-way analysis of variance tests indicated significant differences in the evaluations of ads based on age, gender, education, income, race, region where the respondents come from, whether they consider themselves rural or urban, the number of years experience they have working in advertising, and their advertising job title. How advertising creativity is judged varies significantly based on all sorts of factors.

Some of the differences are predictable, and correlate strongly with the differences between students and advertising professionals. Advertising professionals, for example, are older, have more experience, and higher incomes.

How we judge advertising is clearly a function of who we are, as represented by various demographic and other descriptive variables. Evaluations differ significantly based on all sorts of differences between individuals. Hypothesis H_2 , which posited that there would be no differences in evaluations of advertisements based on demographic variables, was rejected.

Table 2

Analysis of Variance of Evaluation Differences by Demographic Variables

Variable	F	p
Age	3.28	0.000
Gender	18.04	0.000
Education	3.20	0.012
Income	4.01	0.003
Race	4.44	0.001
Region	3.35	0.001
Rural/Urban	4.46	0.012
Experience (years)	3.87	0.000
Experience (job title)	14.14	0.000

Factor Analysis of the CPSS Subscales

The researchers wondered whether factor analysis of the individual items in the Creative Product Semantic Scale would confirm the relationships that should exist between the items and the CPSS subscales. In other words, do the five items that make up the CPSS original, logical, and well crafted subscales load as distinct factors? A maximum likelihood factor analysis with a Varimax rotation was conducted on the 15 CPSS items. The results confirm the relationships between the five items that make up each subscale. All five items had high loadings (0.6 and above). The five highest loadings for Factor 1 were the five items that make up the original subscale. The same was true for the other two subscales. In each case the five items associated with a subscale had the highest loadings for a factor, and the loadings were high (0.6 or above) or moderate (0.4 or above). The validity of the CPSS subscales was confirmed.

Discussion

Different groups of people judge the creativity of print advertisements differently. That is the general conclusion of this study. The situation is somewhat more complex than that, however. College students and advertising professionals judged the originality of ads similarly. Where their opinions differed, perhaps predictably, was with regard to the logic or appropriateness of the ads, and how well crafted the ads were.

Professionals, whose experience and training should give them greater insights about these measures of creativity, judged the ads differently on those scales. In the case of almost every ad, professionals gave ads lower mean scores for the logic and well crafted subscales than did students. With regard to originality, however, the mean scores were quite similar. This is not surprising if one considers that students as general consumers have considerable familiarity with advertising. While not schooled in technique, perhaps, students may have enough life experience with advertising to deduce what is original.

People of different ages, gender, professional experience, region of the country, and other demographic groups judged the ads differently. People of different ages experience the same ad in different ways. Men and women saw the ads differently. Midwesterners and Southerners had different judgments. Several factors apparently affect the experience of looking at an ad and judging its creativity.

What difference does it make? Perhaps the main lesson that advertising professionals could take from the study is to not assume that their judgments about the advertisements they create are congruent with those of the general public that will subsequently experience the ads. Who you are affects how you experience an advertisement. Creativity is in the eye of the beholder in advertising, as well as other spheres of creative endeavor.

Advertising is pervasive in Western society and may be examined in terms of its content, its vehicle, product, and process, among other things. Industry lore presumes desirable and effective advertising to be creative. Industry awards are predicated on this assumption. To date, advertising creativity has been judged primarily by advertising professionals who have training and experience in the creation of advertising. One may also assume that advertising professionals attempt to predict that which will capture the attention of the consumer. This study demonstrates the differences in judgments made by students and advertising professionals. Additional research on a sample of general consumers would provide additional insight into the differences between consumers and advertising professionals. Also, research on creativity as a function of advertising content might identify common characteristics that are likely to be thought creative.

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A STUDY OF THE FACETS OF THE "COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN" IMAGE AND ITS COMPARISON AMONG DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

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ABSTRACT

"Country-of-Origin" image is an important factor, which affects consumers' evaluations of foreign products in the international marketplaces. This study aims to compare the CO images of three countries – Japan, South Korea and India – having different levels of economic developments, and to explore the components of CO image. It examines the three CO facets of each country and their interrelationships. Additionally, it is observed if CO effects vary by the patriotism, a critical factor affecting CO.

INTRODUCTION

Introducing the Question

Global marketing has been prevailed during the last couple of decades in the world. It resulted from the discontinuous changes of the market environment. Due to the rapid development of technology, especially in the communication area, the global market has been emerged. In particular, most product marketers are affected by the actions of the competitors from various countries. A variety of products from many different countries compete with one another. Nowadays, most companies cannot help struggling against stronger competitors, which originated from many countries. It is critical for them to assess consumers' perceptions of product characteristics and surrounding images influencing purchase decisions. Consumers evaluate competing products by many criteria. "Country-of-Origin (CO)" is one of those criteria, and is a potentially powerful image variable that can be used to gain competitive advantage in the international market.[1] The "Made-In" notion is a matter of tremendous importance in international marketing strategy.[2]

Consumers have been more likely to evaluate the brand not by the physical quality of the brand, but by the psychological satisfaction acquired by purchasing the brand than before. Therefore, the brand image has been more important as much as the product quality. It might be getting more crucial as there are few differences among the high-ranked brands in the world in terms of the physical quality. Consequently, the brand image and its variables such as the "Country-of-Origin (CO)" image have been emphasized.

While companies from some advanced countries have taken the advantages of the positive images of their home countries, most companies from developing countries are suffering from the inferior and negative images of their countries. In fact, specific branded and non-branded products imported from industrialized countries usually receive favorable identification; while products imported from less developing countries do not.

This study basically assumes that consumer attitudes and behaviors are affected by CO images in many cases of the international marketing. This study plans to explore which components consist of the overall CO image, and one of which are the most influential on the consumer behavior. By examining the factors consisting of the CO image, it would be possible to suggest the managerial implications for the company planning to launch and market their brands in the global marketplace. Furthermore, as the necessity of the advertising to improve the CO image has been emphasized, general strategies for the advertising would be suggested. Especially, this study concentrates on the case of less developed or developing countries and their unknown brands in foreign markets.

Overall, this study aims to explore differentiated marketing communication strategies by countries in terms of economic development. Strong and favorable factors of CO can be different from a country to the other country. The gap of economic development can make the differences and this study focuses on it. To explore the components and their explanatory power effectively, it is planned to find any correlation of the CO image and its components, and compare three countries, which are recognized differently in terms of the degree of the economic development. Therefore, it would be recommended how each country can take appropriate advertising strategy to camouflage their weaknesses and to enhance their strengths.

Additionally, this study examines some other factors, which have been reported to affect CO image by numerous studies reported: the gender differences and patriotism.

OVERVIEW ON THE "COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN (CO)"

The researches exploring the CO effect have been performed since 1960s. Based on several prominent studies, several integrated concepts related to CO effects have been explored within the boundary of this study: the components or aspects of CO image and its influences. Most of all, it would be helpful for setting up the problem clearly and solving it to overview the concept of the country image with the origin-of-effect.

Definition of Country of Origin Image/ Effect

The country image is referred to the "Country-of-Origin" image in this study as many previous researches. There are several definitions of country-of-origin effect or image. Following descriptions are frequently referred by other CO studies.

- The picture, the reputation, the stereotype that businessmen and consumers attach to products of a specific country. This image is created by such variables as representative products, national characteristics, economic and political background, history, and traditions.[3]
- Buyers' opinions regarding the relative qualities of goods and services produced in various countries.[4]
- How consumers perceive products emanating from a particular country.[5]

To be summarized, the CO means an overall image of a country, which influence on the product image, since the product was produced or originated in that country.

An important concept reminds that CO would be determined according to the perception of the consumer. Therefore, if consumers perceive a product as a representative of the U.S., in spite of it was made or assembled in outside of U.S., the product would be accompanied with the CO image of the U.S. In fact, in this worldwide era, many brands are manufactured abroad rather than the country it originated. Liebler reported that the U.S. consumers are likely to perceive the Japanese automobiles, which are manufactured in the U.S. territory, as Japanese products.[6] Another study, which is related to the taxonomy of the CO image, supported this argument.[7] "Made-in-Country," where a product was made, is not important factor in this contemporary market environment any more. Otherwise, "Origin Country," which a country would be associated with a product, would be the most crucial factor. It really functions as an abstract image itself. Briefly, the "origin country" is more related to the CO image than "made-in" country.

The Components of the Overall CO Image: Three Facets

Many studies have assessed CO images. It has been reported that there are quite a many components consisting of CO image. Putting various reports together, it can be arranged that CO images have three facets: "General Country Attributes," "General Product Attributes," and "Specific Product Attributes."[8] These three facets of the CO image are categorized according to the different dimensions, which influence the consumers' purchase decision. The overall CO image can be evaluated by examining and purifying these three facets, which was first articulated by Yaprak and Parameswaran in 1986.[9]

First, CO images affecting purchase and consumption behaviors have been related to the characteristics of the origin country and its people, the "General Country Attributes (GCA)."[10] It has been demonstrated that consumers' willingness to purchase a product is related to the economic, political, and cultural characteristics of the country a product originated. Additionally, CO images are affected by the consumer's perception of similarity between his or her won country's and the origin country's various aspects such as cultural, political, and belief system.[11]

Second, CO effects. have been frequently related to the perception about the overall product offerings of a particular origin country. Papadopoulos and his colleagues noted that a consumer's attitude toward an unfamiliar country may well be based on knowledge about their capacity for producing quality products in general.[12] This perception also affects the consumer's evaluation of specific products from that country. This factor, "General Product Attributes (GPA)," can be the second facet of the CO image.

The last facet is the "Specific Product Attributes (SPA)." Bilkey and Nes criticized single-cue studies and hypothesized that behavioral attributes are affected by GCA and GPA as well as by specific product attributes.[13] This facet includes product, marketing, and firm-goodwill attributes. The influence of CO image may vary depending on what the specific product is. Therefore, the components of SPA are different from a product to a product. For example, in the evaluation of automobile, the "good fuel economy" would be one of the most important attributes. However, other products cannot be evaluated by this specific attribute. That is the reason why SPA should be considered as one facet of the CO image.

CO Effects on Consumers' Purchase Decisions

Consumers are more likely to use a subjective or emotional criteria in the way of deciding if product would be the most appropriate for their demands. Often, as was noted, rational, physical and objective criteria like price, product quality or distribution factors are less importantly considered in the process of purchase decision than image variables. Surely, this inclination is resulted from the fact that most consumers have little information about the product, which they are going to buy. Moreover, there are numerous brands in the global marketplace, and they sell quite similar products in a same product category. The competition among the brands is getting fiercer.

Consumers may hardly have any knowledge about the inherent quality of a product; therefore, they cannot help evaluating the product with limited cues, which implies the quality of the product. The country-of-origin image might be appropriate for one of those cues. Especially, it influences very much in the case of the product about which consumers can hardly get the information. Moreover, consumers are unwilling to spend their precious time in seeking the information about a product. Recently, more and more foreign products can be provided to consumers throughout the world, but consumers can rarely get the information about the foreign product rather than the domestic products. Consequently, the CO image would be one of the most affective factors in the purchasing decision. When a consumer decides to purchase a foreign product as an alternative, he/she can evaluate the product with the attitudes toward the foreign country, which the product originated. Therefore, the product of a country having negative images can be evaluated negatively, while the product of the other country possessing a positive image would be evaluated positively.

Surely, there are quite a few intervening factors in the process of consumer behavior. Therefore, only CO image can hardly explain the reason why consumers have preferable attitudes toward a certain foreign product. Nevertheless, due to the rapid changes in the international market environment, the distinction between domestic products and foreign ones would be more ambiguous; in fact, dividing product into the two categories is not meaningless any more.

Although there are several critical factors as well as the three facets, which addressed previously, it can be referred that the three facets are the most fundamental attributes of the CO image. Therefore, this study focuses on these three facets and its individual components.

METHODOLOGY

Through the previous studies regarding CO image, this study, as previously addressed, plans to explore the components of CO image and its influences on consumers' evaluations of products.

Research Scheme and its Questions

This study mainly evaluates the three facets of CO image, which can influence on the purchase decision. Those are "General Country Attributes (GCA)," "General Product Attributes (GPA)," and "Specific Product Attributes (SPA)" as reviewed before. It is examined which factors are the most correlated to the overall CO image and the intention to purchase in each facet. Additionally, "Patriotism" and "Gender" would be meaningful variables, which can operate differently in evaluating the CO image and the purchase intentions for the foreign products.

The objective countries were selected according to the income level of the country. As Nes and Bilkey reported, Japan, South Korea, and India are categorized into three different countries in terms of the economic development. Japan is categorized as higher-income country, while South Korea and India are done as a middle-income one and a low-income country, respectively.[14] In fact, India as well as China can be evaluated as one of the most well known country among many low-income countries. Those three countries' CO images are evaluated in this study. Within this research scheme, following research questions are raised in this study below.

1. Are there significant differences of purchase intention among the products of the three countries?
2. Are there significant differences among the attitudes toward Japan, Korea, and India in terms of the components of CO image?
3. Are there significant correlation of the intention to purchase the product from the three countries and other general components of the "General Country Attributes (GCA)" and "General Product Attributes (GPA)?" How is different in the case of each country?

4. Are there significant correlation of the intention to purchase the products from the three countries and other general components of the "General Country Attributes (GCA)" and "Specific Product Attributes (SPA)?" How is different in the case of each country?
5. Are there any significant differences of evaluations of the components of the CO image and the intention to purchase between genders?
6. Are there any significant differences of evaluation the components of the CO image and the intention to purchase among the peoples who have different extent of patriotism?

Variables and Measurement

In this study, each facet of CO image is measured by evaluating the components of each, and by examining the correlation of the representative value of each facet and its components. Each facet includes several components, which can consist of the overall value of each facet. Therefore, it would be explored which components are the most correlated to the representative value in each facet. All questions asking the degree of the intention to purchase are constructed with 7-point Likert scale. All variables measured are described in <Table A> as below.

<Table A>
The Variables Measured and Its Components

Category	Description
GCA (General Country Attribute)	• The development of politics • The development of economy • The advances of culture • The similarity of the country with the U.S. • The degree of education • The friendliness of the citizens
GPA (General Product Attribute)	• Innovativeness • Design • Prestige • Workmanship
SPA (Specific Product Attribute) Home Computer	• Performance • Design • Satisfaction with the price • Reliability

<Table A>
The Variables Measured and Its Components

Patriotism	• 7 Point Scale: 1-2 (Weak), (3-5) Moderate, (6-7)Strong
Intention to Purchase the Products from each Country	• 7 Point Scale
Intention to Purchase the Home Computer from each Country	• 7 Point Scale

To explore the SPA facet, it is necessary to choose a specific product. In this study, "Home Computer" was selected. The reason why "Home Computer" was chosen as the objective product is that "Home Computer" is relatively unknown product as the three countries' export article. To explore the CO image effectively, the item should not remind people some established brand. Only Japan is selling this item, "Home Computer." in the U.S. market. However, their computer brands have been known recently. Therefore, it can be evaluated that their brand image has not firmly established yet. When considering automobiles or electronics, Japan has established their excellent brand image in those markets with Honda, Toyota, Sony, Toshiba, and so on. If selecting those items, the pure CO image can hardly be examined, for the individual brand images can overcome or undermine the CO image. Moreover, "Computer" is one of the familiar items to college students, the sample of this study.

Additionally, high-risk products would be preferred to explore the CO image, for ignorance of the country originated is prevailed when purchasing the low-risk products. Moreover, the computer is one of the main items, which target the college students.

With these variables, the survey tool, the questionnaire, was designed for e-mail survey. As shown in <Appendix A>, to increase the response rate, the subject title was named as "Help Me! It takes only 3 minutes," and asked respondents to type "R" for reply and "Y" for including the questionnaire when asking whether they included the original message, the questionnaire.

Survey Design and Analysis Methods

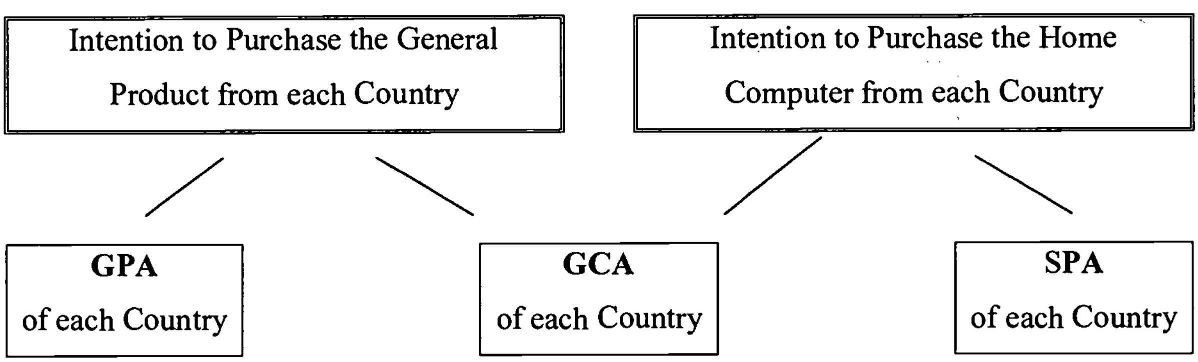
To explore the research questions raised above, it needs to determine which analysis methods would be used. <Table B> shows the statistical methodologies, which are used to explore each research question (RQ).

< Table B > - Analysis Methods

	Description of Analysis	Statistical Methods
RQ 1	Comparison of the intentions to purchase the general products from the three countries	ANOVA
RQ 2	Comparison of the components of CO image among the three countries	ANOVA
RQ 3	Correlation of the intention to purchase the general products and other components of CO image in each country.	Correlation
RQ 4	Correlation of the intention to purchase the home computers and other components of CO image in each country.	Correlation
RQ 5	Gender differences	t-Test
RQ 6	Patriotism differences	ANOVA (if applicable), otherwise t-Test

The main analysis is correlation, which is shown in <Figure A>. It depicts how the three kinds of CO image components - GCA, GPA, SPA- are correlated to the intention to purchase the products from each country.

<Figure A> The variables analyzed by correlation



Sampling

The survey was conducted by using e-mail method. The sample frame was "University of Tennessee, Knoxville Student Directory for 1998 and 1999." It includes all registered students from freshmen to graduate students, with their e-mail addresses. The questionnaires were sent to them through the college's UNIX system.

The samples were gathered by systematic sampling method, selecting each sample with equal intervals. In detail, the sampling began from the fifth page of the directory.

The interval was also five. That is to say, the samples selected are students whose names are on the fifth, tenth, fifteenth, and so on in every fifth page. In the case of no e-mail address in the selected student column, the next available sample was taken as the alternative.

In order to make the number of male and female equal, the first names of students were considered. However, this method is somewhat limited due to several exceptions. To camouflage this limitation, it is conducted that the responds from both genders were ignored from the 26th sample to make the number of them to be equal.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

As a result of running the survey designed in previous section, each research questions were explored. Before analyzing the data regarding of the research questions, it is necessary to represent the sample profile. Six research areas would be followed. All tables referred in this section are shown in Appendices.

Sample Profile

The number of sample used in this study was 50 (male=25 / female=25). Totally, 250 pre-samples were selected, and e-mail questionnaires were sent to them. The number of samples gathered from the survey was 62 (male=37 / female=25) by two days after sending the e-mails. The response rate is 24.8%. The 17 samples that returned late than other 25 e-mails were ignored to make the number of male and female samples equal.

The majority of them (40%) were graduate students followed by junior students (24%). Others are equal as 12% respectively. In the evaluation of their patriotism, none responded as weak patriotic, which was categorized as 1 and 2 in 7 point scale. Most students evaluated their patriotism as moderate (56%) or strong (44%).

Intention to Purchase the Products from the Three Countries

The intention to purchase is the most important variable among all variables used in this study, for it is the closest one to actual purchase behavior, and the most developed variable, which can be reached by the advertising effort. The evaluation of intention to purchase the products from each country was conducted to find whether there are any differences among the influences of three countries' CO image on product evaluations. As shown in <Table 1> in Appendix B, it was evaluated that students are more likely to purchase the Japanese product (mean=4.96) than the products from other two countries, S. Korea and India as the means of 4.04 and 3.60, respectively.

Evaluation of all CO Image Components of the Three Countries

The CO image was consisted of three facets as previously referred. In order to the differences of the general components consisting of GCA and GPA, each component of three countries was compared.

As shown in <Table 1>, most variables showed significant differences among the three countries. All variables referred that Japan is considerably superior to other two countries. Additionally, several variables showed that S Korea is superior to India. Those are "the development of economy," "the degree of education," "prestige," and "workmanship." These variables are closely related to the income level. It can be inferred that income level of each country influences the overall CO image and its components. However, two aspects did not show any significant differences among the countries. Those are "the advances of culture," and "the friendliness of the citizens." These are regarded as the variables, which are not closely related to the income level, the economic aspect. In fact, the development of economy" showed the significant differences among all three countries, due to the fact that it is the closest variable to the income level. Especially the mean of Japanese development of economy, 6.28, was the highest one among all variables used in this study. In this aspect, the means of S Korea and India (4.44 / 2/68) are considerably lower than Japan.

Correlation of the "Intention to Purchase" General Products and CO Facets

The intention to purchase the product from the three countries was compared in RQ 1 section. Furthermore, it is necessary to analyze which components are the most correlated to this variable. As shown in <Table 2>, this analysis was separately done by the country.

First, in the case of Japan, seven components are significantly correlated to the intention to purchase the Japanese product. Those are "prestige (R= .776)," "workmanship (.561)," "the development of economy (.458)," "design (.415)," " innovativeness (.380)," and "the similarity with the U.S. (.302)" as referred in <Table 2>. It can be inferred that these aspects of CO image are considerably correlated to the intention to purchase Japanese products in the U.S. market.

Second, it was proved that more components are significantly correlated to the intention to purchase the Korean products. Most of the components showed the significant correlation except "friendliness of the citizen," "the development of politics," and "awareness of Korea." Surprisingly, the awareness of the Korea is not correlated to the overall evaluation of the Korean products in terms of the intention to purchase. The most highly correlated variables are "prestige (R= .583)," "workmanship (.558)," "innovativeness (.554)," and so on.

India showed a light correlation of the "intention to purchase" and variables of CO facets. In fact, like the previous two countries, most GCA components showed to be significantly correlated to the "intention to purchase" Indian products. Only two GPA variables were significantly correlated to that: "the awareness of India (R= .372)," "the advances of culture (.310)."

Correlation of the Intention to Purchase the PC and CO Facets

The evaluation of the "intention to purchase" a specific product, "Home Computer," is conducted in same way as the evaluation of "general products," by examining the correlation with seven GCA variables and four SPA variables. As shown in <Table 1>, the intention to purchase PC showed significant differences among three countries. Japan was also the highest ranked followed by Korea and India (mean = 4.92 / 3.60 / 2.12).

In the case of Japan computer, unlike the previous case (the general product), only four variables showed the significant correlation with the overall attitudes, the "intention to purchase" PC. All of them are the components of SPA. That is to say, the general CO image was not correlated to the intention to purchase the Japanese computer. "PC design (R = .845)," "reliability of PC (.838)," "performance of PC (.716)," and "satisfaction with PC price (.522)" showed considerably high correlation with the intention to purchase.

Other components of GCA such as "development of economy," and "the similarity with the U.S." were not significantly correlated.

The case of Korean computer showed somewhat different results. The intention to purchase Korean computers was significantly correlated to several general components of CO image as well as specific components. Four GCA components showed the significant correlation. Those were "the development of economy (R= .438)" "the education level (.412)," "friendliness of the citizens (.349)," and "the advances of culture (.307)." Surely, the four specific components showed relatively higher correlation with the overall attitude like the case of Japanese computer.

The case of Korean computer showed that the overall attitudes were significantly more correlated to the general components than Japanese computer case. This trend was getting more intense in the case of India computer. Only two specific components were significantly correlated to the overall attitude: "reliability of PC (R=.373)," and "PC design (.317)." The most differentiated characteristic of this case was that most variables showed negative correlation. The all seven GCA variables showed negative and significant correlation. "Culture" and "Friendliness" aspects showed the higher correlation. On the contrary, these variables were not correlated to the case of Japanese computer.

The Gender Differences

The analysis of gender differences was applied to most components consisting of CO image in each country. All seven GCA, four GPA, and four SPA components as well as the overall attitude toward the general product and specific product, PC, were analyzed. Overall, males showed significantly positive attitudes toward several aspects of CO image rather than females did. However, there are some different trends among the three countries. The gender differences are shown in <Table 4-1,2,3>.

First, in the case of Japan, males had more positive attitudes toward "politics," "economy," "culture," "friendliness," "workmanship" than females. Most GPA and SPA components were not shown the significant differences between the genders. Therefore, it can be regarded as the fact that males are more positive to the general attributes of the country, Japan, itself.

In the case of Korea, they showed significant differences in more aspects than Japan case. <Table 4-2> refers that five GCA variables, two GPA variables, and all four variables showed significant differences between the genders. Males also showed significantly positive attitudes toward the intention to purchase the general product than females (mean = 4.56 - 3.52). However, they did not showed any significant differences in the "intention to purchase" Korean PC. Overall, it was proved that males have more positive attitudes toward Korea and Korean products than females in most aspects.

A different trend can be found in the case of India. Overall, like other two countries, males are more likely to prefer India and Indian products than females. However, as shown in <Table 4-3>, this phenomenon was reversed in the evaluations of the GPA components. In fact, females are more likely to prefer the "design (mean = 3.88)" and "innovativeness (mean = 4.04)" of Indian products than males as means of 3.00 and 2.84, respectively. Naturally, females considerably prefer Indian products in terms of "intention to purchase" them as the mean of 4.08, while males are somewhat unwilling to purchase the products (mean = 3.12). This trend is also applied to the intention to purchase the Indian computer; in fact, females showed higher preferences as the mean of 2.64 than males (mean = 1.60).

The Patriotism Differences

The analysis of patriotism differences was also applied to most components consisting of CO image in each country like the previous case, gender differences. As previously analyzed, none responded that they had weak patriotism as checking on 1 or 2 point in 7 point scale (1 - Not strongly patriotic / 7 – Strongly patriotic). Therefore, t-test was used instead of ANOVA. The group was divided into two as "Moderately patriotic" and "Strongly patriotic." Overall, there are a few variables, which showed the significant differences between "Moderate" and "Strong" groups in all countries. All results are shown in <Table 5-1,2,3>.

In the case of Japan, as shown in <Table 5-1>, only five variables showed significant differences between the two different groups in terms of patriotism. Four were

GPA variables and one was the "economy" aspect. Strange to say, students who are strongly patriotic are more likely to evaluate highly Japan's economy. It is same in the GPA four variables, which showed significant differences. Briefly, the stronger the patriotism is, the more preferable evaluation of the Japanese CO image they have.

In the case of Korea showed different results. The two groups evaluated the Korean CO image significantly different in various aspects. Even though, five variables were differently evaluated, those are from all three facets. In fact, two of GCA, one of GPA, and two of SPA were shown significant differences. In only one aspect, "the development of politics," the "moderate" group was proved to prefer the Korea rather than "strong" group. Detailed information in given in <Table 5-2>.

In the evaluation of Indian CO image, the two different groups showed significant differences in only two aspects: "prestige" of GPA and "performance" of SPA. Both of them referred that students having stronger patriotism are more likely to be positive toward India in terms of "prestige" and "innovativeness."

DISCUSSION AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

With the results of this study, several critical implications would be inferred to suggest the brand management of the company from a variety of countries in the U.S. market.

According to the results, the high-income country, Japan, has considerably superior image than other middle or low-income countries in terms of the overall attitudes as well as all components of CO image. This can be inferred that several advanced countries dominate the global market in terms of the consumers' mind. The positioning theory suggested that entering into the evoked set is the most important objective of every brand. The evoked set is quite limited, so consumers can hardly memorize a variety of brands. As previously noted, the country can operate as the brand in the global marketplace. Consequently, consumers usually remind only several well-known and advanced countries when determining the purchase. Other countries are likely to be forgotten or ignored. This result implies that the brand from under developed countries should make the efforts to enhance the awareness of their countries.

Although the purchase decision proved to be correlated to the most general product attributes rather than general country attributes; however, it varies by countries which aspects or components should be reinforced. In the case of high-income country, the direct aspects, the general product attributes such as design, workmanship and prestige are highly correlated to the intention to purchase. While in the cases of middle or low-income countries, those aspects are somewhat highly correlated to the overall attitudes. It can be inferred that the brands from under developed countries should enhance their specific attributes. Because the preference of the general product aspects is somewhat not highly correlated to the overall preferences, the intention to purchase would be lower than the case of high-income country. This trend is getting more prevailed in lower income country rather than middle-income country. In the case of low-income country, the general product attributes are considerably correlated the intention to purchase the products from the country. It implies that the low preferences of the CO image can be much explained by the low evaluation of each product attribute. Although the country itself can be preferred, the products of the country can hardly preferred because of the negative image of the general product attributes. In fact, a general country attribute of India, cultural aspect, was highly evaluated. However, it can be assumed that the preference of the Indian culture stems from the well-known Indian advanced culture.

In the case of a specific product, home computer, even the results and implications might be limited to this specific product, Japanese computers proved to be highly evaluated because of the each aspect of the computer. In fact, its reliability, design, and performance were highly correlated to the overall preferences toward the Japanese computer. The less a country developed, the less the specific product attributes are correlated to the overall preference toward the computer from the country. In the case of India, most general country attributes are negatively correlated to the intention to purchase the Indian computer. Other specific attributes are slightly correlated to that. Consequently, it can be inferred that the Indian computer, even it does not exist, has not formed the typical image. In fact, the intention to purchase Indian computer showed the second lowest preferences among all aspects of CO image.

Overall, the brand from a low-income country is usually not preferred in terms of the intention to purchase. It stems from several reasons. Those are the low preferences of the most general and specific product attributes. Therefore, several strategic recommendations would be induced. The brands from under developed countries should make some efforts to enhance the image of specific product category attributes, then it would be necessary to accompany the reinforcing the image of the general products attributes. However, the specific product attribute, which should be improved, depends on what the product category is.

From the analysis of the gender differences, overall, males are more preferable to the foreign countries and their products than females are. Although there were a few exceptions, which showed the relative preferences of females toward the foreign countries and products, the majority of CO attributes showing the significant differences imply that females are relatively unfavorable to foreign countries. Especially, the general country attributes such as politics, culture, friendliness and so on are relatively more preferred by males in high-income country. These values are somewhat fundamental, while others are more specific. Consequently, males have the firmly favorable attitudes toward the foreign countries. Overall, CO images can be improved with implementing females' unfavorable attitudes and reinforcing males' favorable ones.

In regarding of the patriotism, it was found that the level of patriotism was not related to the degree of the preference toward foreign countries in general. However, in the case of South Korea, strongly patriotic people are more likely to prefer this country and its products than people whose are moderate patriotic.

On the whole, less developed countries should improve their CO image, and the companies from those kinds of countries have to improve the various values of the product category and their brands' attributes in order to increase their product sales. Although the advanced countries should also try to improve their CO image, the necessity of strategy for enhancing the CO image and its facets is more required for less developed countries and their brands with the effective marketing communication activities.

This study has several limitations. Like most previous studies, it adopted the "single-cue" study, which did not provide any other specific product information like price, individual brand equity, packages, and so forth. Considering the reality, those crucial variables are needed to be explored with CO images when measure the influence of CO image on consumers' attitudes toward and intentions to purchase a foreign product. Additionally, the sample size needs to be larger in a further study. Additionally, the number of sample countries was restricted as three. A number of countries having various backgrounds are needed to explore in CO studies. Based on this study, more various and sophisticated studies are also needed for overcoming the limitations of this study.

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APPENDIX – A

< E-mail Questionnaire >

Subject: Help me with my project! It takes only 3 minutes.

Hello, I am a graduate student in the college of communication. I am researching the effect of the country image and its correlation with the product image. I would like to ask a few questions about it. The contents of your answers will not be revealed but for the purpose of research. I would appreciate a few minutes of your valuable time to get your responses. It takes 3 minutes to complete.
To respond to my survey, type 'R' to reply. Then when you are asked "Do you want to include original message?" Type 'Y' for 'Yes.' You can then type your response as 'X' on each blank of my survey questions. Thanks for your cooperation.

I. General Country Attributes

1. I KNOW THIS COUNTRY VERY WELL

Strongly Disagree — Strongly Agree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- Japan I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
- S.Korea I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
- India I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I

2. THE POLITICS OF THIS COUNTRY IS VERY ADVANCED

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- Japan I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
- S.Korea I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
- India I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I

3. THE ECONOMY OF THIS COUNTRY IS VERY DEVELOPED

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- Japan I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
- S.Korea I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
- India I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I

4. THE CULTURE OF THIS COUNTRY IS HIGHLY ADVANCED

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- Japan I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
- S.Korea I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
- India I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I

5. THIS COUNTRY IS VERY SIMILAR WITH THE U.S.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- Japan I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
- S.Korea I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
- India I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I

6. THE CITIZENS OF THIS COUNTRY ARE VERY WELL-EDUCATED

	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
• Japan	I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
• S.Korea	I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
• India	I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I

7. THE CITIZENS OF THIS COUNTRY ARE VERY FRIENDLY

	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
• Japan	I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
• S.Korea	I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
• India	I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I

8. I PREFER THIS COUNTRY VERY WELL

	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
• Japan	I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
• S.Korea	I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I
• India	I----I----I----I----I----I----I----I

II. General Product Attributes

9. When you see the following (Made In) labels, what do you think about the aspects of the countries' product below?

	POOR EXCELLENT
JAPAN	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
• Innovativeness	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
• Design	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
• Prestige	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
• Workmanship	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
S.KOREA	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
• Innovativeness	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
• Design	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
• Prestige	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
• Workmanship	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
INDIA	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
• Innovativeness	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
• Design	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
• Prestige	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
• Workmanship	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

When you see the following (Made In) labels,

10. I WOULD LIKE TO BUY **THE PRODUCT** FROM THIS COUNTRY

	Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
• Japan	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
• S.Korea	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
• India	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

III. Specific Product Attributes

11. When you see the following (Made In) labels of **Home Computer**, what do you think about the aspects of the countries' product below?

	POOR						EXCELLENT
JAPANESE PC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Performance	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						
• Design	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						
• Satisfaction with Price	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						
• Reliability	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						

	POOR						EXCELLENT
S.KOREAN PC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Performance	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						
• Design	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						
• Satisfaction with Price	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						
• Reliability	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						

	POOR						EXCELLENT
INDIAN PC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Performance	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						
• Design	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						
• Satisfaction with Price	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						
• Reliability	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						

12. I WOULD LIKE TO BUY THE **HOME COMPUTER** ORIGINATED FROM THIS COUNTRY

	Strongly Disagree					Agree	Strongly
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Japan	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						
• S.Korea	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I						
• India	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I ----I						

IV. What do you think about your patriotism?

1. Weak (   )
2. Neither Weak nor Strong ( )
3. Strong (   )

V. What is your gender?

MALE (   ) FEMALE (   )

APPENDIX – B
TABLES OF THE RESULTS

Table 1
Comparison of Each CO Variables Among the Three Countries
(n=50)

	Japan	S.Korea	India	F-Value	Prob.>F	Sig. Diff.
	Mean effectiveness rating					
General Country Attributes						
Awareness of the country	3.52	2.40	3.12	7.644	.001	J-K / K-I
The development of politics	4.88	3.56	2.96	27.75	.000	J-K / J-I
The development of economy	6.28	4.44	2.68	97.11	.000	J-K/K-I/I-J
The advances of culture	5.88	5.36	5.64	1.80	n.s	
The similarity of the country with the U.S.	4.08	2.72	2.07	26.63	.000	J-K / J-I
The degree of education	6.08	5.32	4.16	21.94	.000	J-K/K-I/I-J
The friendliness of the citizens	4.92	4.84	4.44	1.67	n.s	
	(1) Strongly Disagree – (7) Strongly Agree					
General Product Attributes						
Innovativeness	5.44	4.04	3.44	28.62	.000	J-K / J-I
Design	5.48	4.04	3.44	34.42	.000	J-K / J-I
Prestige	5.36	3.96	3.12	42.43	.000	J-K/K-I/I-J
Workmanship	6.00	4.50	3.48	47.63	.000	J-K/K-I/I-J
	(1) Poor – (7) Excellent					
The Intention to purchase the product	4.96	4.04	3.60	12.83	.000	J-K / J-I
	(1) Strongly Disagree – (7) Strongly Agree					
Specific Product Attributes (Home Computer)						
Performance	5.24	3.83	2.48	64.730	.000	J-K/K-I/I-J
Design	5.28	3.92	2.39	73.15	.000	J-K/K-I/I-J
Satisfaction with Price	4.84	4.04	2.70	29.60	.000	J-K/K-I/I-J
Reliability	5.40	3.83	2.48	89.312	.000	J-K/K-I/I-J
	(1) Poor – (7) Excellent					
The Intention to purchase the Computer	4.92	3.60	2.12	39.95	.000	J-K/K-I/I-J
	(1) Strongly Disagree – (7) Strongly Agree					

Table 2
Correlation of "Intention to Purchase" General Products and CO Facets
(n=50)

	R		
	JAPAN	**S. KOREA**	**INDIA**
General Country Attributes			
Awareness of the country	.081	.044	.372**
The development of politics	.112	.259	.199
The development of economy	.458**	.496**	-.188
The advances of culture	.247	.499**	.310*
The similarity of the country with the U.S.	.302*	.318*	.079
The degree of education	.171	.417**	.100
The friendliness of the citizens	.160	.249	.127
General Product Attributes			
Innovativeness	.380**	.554**	.718**
Design	.415**	.528**	.720**
Prestige	.776**	.583**	.674**
Workmanship	.561**	.561**	.774**

Table 3
Correlation of the Intention to Purchase PC and CO Facets
(n=50)

	R		
	JAPAN	**S. KOREA**	**INDIA**
General Country Attributes			
Awareness of the country	-.273	-.070	-.233
The development of politics	-.205	.182	-.370**
The development of economy	-.183	.438**	-.501**
The advances of culture	.178	.307*	-.605**
The similarity of the country with the U.S.	.112	.027	-.014
The degree of education	-.038	.412**	-.359**
The friendliness of the citizens	.115	.349*	-.468**
General Product Attributes			
Performance	.716**	.558**	.265
Design	.845**	.497**	.317*
Satisfaction with the Price	.522**	.517**	.269
Reliability	.838**	.665**	.373*

Table 4-1
Significant Differences between Genders toward JAPAN (n=50)

General Country Attributes

The development of politics

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Male	25	5.32	1.11	2.622	.012
Female	25	4.44	1.26		

The development of economy

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Male	25	6.60	.96	2.154	.036
Female	25	5.96	1.14		

The advances of culture

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Male	25	6.20	.91	2.021	.049
Female	25	5.56	1.29		

The friendliness of the citizens

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Male	25	5.56	1.26	3.028	.004
Female	25	4.28	1.70		

(1) Strongly Disagree – (7) Strongly Agree

"n.s. (Not Significant) Factors"

"Awareness of the country" "The similarity of the country with the U.S." "The degree of education"

General Product Attributes

Workmanship

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Male	25	6.36	.81	2.614	.012
Female	25	5.64	1.11		

(1) Poor – (7) Excellent

"n.s. (Not Significant) Factors"

GPA - "Innovativeness" "Design" "Prestige" "Intention to purchase (GPA)"
SPA - "Performance" "Design" "Satisfaction with Price" "Reliability" "Intention to purchase PC"

Table 4-2
Significant Differences between Genders toward S.KOREA (n=50)

General Country Attributes

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
The development of politics					
Male	25	4.00	1.12		
Female	25	3.12	1.17	2.724	.009
The development of economy					
Male	25	5.20	1.22		
Female	25	3.68	1.22	4.405	.000
The advances of culture					
Male	25	5.92	1.08		
Female	25	4.80	1.29	3.331	.002
The degree of education					
Male	25	6.08	.81		
Female	25	4.56	.87	6.385	.000
The friendliness of the citizens					
Male	25	5.12	1.13		
Female	25	3.76	1.05	4.405	.000

(1) Strongly Disagree – (7) Strongly Agree

"N.S. Factors"- "Awareness of the country" "The similarity of the country with the U.S."

General Product Attributes

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Workmanship (1) Poor – (7) Excellent					
Male	25	4.84	1.14		
Female	23	4.13	1.01	2.267	.028
The Intention to purchase the product (1) Strongly Disagree – (7) Strongly Agree					
Male	25	4.56	1.29		
Female	25	3.52	1.23	2.914	.005

Specific Product Attributes (Home Computer)

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Performance					
Male	25	4.20	1.00		
Female	25	3.43	.95	2.725	.009
Design					
Male	25	4.24	1.13		
Female	23	3.57	1.12	2.076	.044
Satisfaction with price					
Male	25	4.64	1.29		
Female	23	3.39	1.27	3.379	.001
Reliability					
Male	25	4.36	.81		
Female	23	3.26	.75	4.875	.000

(1) Poor – (7) Excellent

"n.s. (Not Significant) Factors"

GPA - "Innovativeness" "Design"
SPA - "Performance" "Design" "Intention to purchase PC"

Table 4-3
Significant Differences between Genders toward INDIA (n=50)

General Country Attributes

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
The development of economy					
Male	25	3.32	1.41	3.848	.000
Female	25	2.04	.89		
The advances of culture					
Male	25	6.24	.93	2.809	.007
Female	25	5.04	1.93		
The degree of education					
Male	25	5.08	1.89	3.604	.001
Female	25	3.24	1.71		
The friendliness of the citizens					
Male	25	5.28	1.17	2.522	.015
Female	25	4.40	1.29		

(1) Strongly Disagree – (7) Strongly Agree

"N.S. Factors"- "Awareness of the country" "The development of politics" "The Degree of similarity"

General Product Attributes

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Innovativeness					
Male	25	3.00	1.22	-2.216	.031
Female	25	3.88	1.56		
Design					
Male	25	2.84	1.28	-2.964	.005
Female	25	4.04	1.57		

(1) Poor – (7) Excellent

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
The Intention to purchase the product					
Male	25	3.12	1.17	-2.689	.010
Female	25	4.08	1.35		

(1) StronglyDisagree – (7) StronglyAgree

Specific Product Attributes (Home Computer)

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
The intention to purchase the Computer					
Male	25	1.60	.65	-4.040	.000
Female	25	2.64	1.11		

(1) Strongly Disagree – (7) Strongly Agree

"n.s. (Not Significant) Factors"

GPA - "Prestige" "Workmanship"
SPA - "Performance" "Design" "Satisfaction with Price" "Reliability"

Table 5-1
Sig. Differences toward JAPAN between groups having different Patriotism (n=50)

General Country Attributes

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
The development of economy					
Moderate	28	6.00	1.28	-2.214	.039
Strong	22	6.64	.66		

General Product Attributes

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Innovativeness					
Moderate	28	4.86	1.38	-3.727	.001
Strong	22	6.18	1.05		
Design					
Moderate	28	5.07	1.18	-2.871	.006
Strong	22	6.00	1.07		
Prestige					
Moderate	28	5.00	1.33	-2.426	.019
Strong	22	5.82	.96		
Workmanship					
	N	**Mean**	**S.D**	**T**	**Prob.>|T|**
Moderate	28	5.71	1.05	-2.308	.025
Strong	22	6.36	.90		

(1) Poor – (7) Excellent

"n.s. (Not Significant) Factors"

GCA – All Variables ***except*** *"the development of economy"*
GPA - "Intention to Purchase Products"
SPA – All Variables

Table 5-2
Sig. Differences toward S. KOREA between groups having different Patriotism (n=50)

General Country Attributes

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
The development of politics					
Moderate	28	4.00	1.22	3.224	.002
Strong	22	3.00	.98		
The degree of similarity					
Moderate	28	2.71	.81	-2.023	.049
Strong	22	3.45	1.71		

(1) Strongly Disagree – (7) Strongly Agree

General Product Attributes

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Innovativeness					
Moderate	28	3.50	1.14	-4.164	.000
Strong	22	4.73	.88		

Specific Product Attributes (Home Computer)

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Satisfaction with price					
Moderate	28	4.43	1.48	2.349	.023
Strong	20	3.50	1.15		
Reliability					
Moderate	28	4.14	1.01	2.859	.006
Strong	20	3.40	.68		

(1) Poor – (7) Excellent

"n.s. (Not Significant) Factors"

GCA – "Awareness of the country" "Development of economy" "advances of culture" "degree of similarity" friendliness of the citizens"
GPA – All Variables except "Intention to Purchase Products"
SPA – "Performance" "Design" "Intention to purchase PC"

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Table 5-3
Sig. Differences toward INDIA between groups having different Patriotism (n=50)

General Country Attributes

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Prestige					
Moderate	28	2.79	1.03	-2.090	.042
Strong	22	3.55	1.53		

(1) Poor– (7) Excellent

Specific Product Attributes (Home Computer)

	N	Mean	S.D	T	Prob.>|T|
Performance					
Moderate	28	2.21	.69	-2.878	.006
Strong	18	2.89	.90		

(1) Poor– (7) Excellent

"n.s. (Not Significant) Factors"

All factors of the three CO facets except the two above did not show any significant differences between the two different groups

International Advertising Strategies in China

-- A Worldwide Survey of Foreign Advertisers

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Abstract

This paper explores how foreign corporations advertise in China. A worldwide survey of foreign advertisers in China, the first such comprehensive survey, was conducted. The study has found that a predominant majority of the companies surveyed use the combination strategy, that is, partly standardized and partly localized. Factors that relate to the advertising strategies used in China are the number of subsidiaries, the perceived importance of localizing language and product attributes, and the perceived importance of mostly Chinese cultural values.

I. Introduction: The Rise of Advertising in China

China, as a big potential market, is coveted by every business in the world. The sheer size of its population – more than 1.2 billion people – merits serious attention from businesses as well as scholars. The best-known dream is: "If I can sell a toothbrush to everyone in China, I will be rich."

However, that market remained closed for 30 years until late 1978 when Chinese leader Deng Xiaoping decided to institute sweeping economic reforms that opened China to the outside world. Since 1978, the reform has helped fuel one of the world's highest growth rates: an average growth in Gross Domestic Product of 9.3 percent a year.[1] Consumption has more than doubled and the poverty rate has declined by 60 percent. Reform has also led to rapid integration with the world economy. Today, China is the tenth largest trading nation in the world and attracts more foreign direct investment than any other country except the United States.

For the first time in modern history, China is recognized as a world economic power. And for the first time in history, the potential of the Chinese market has become a reality with China's door opened and with its newly acquired purchasing power. It is predicted that the greatest consumer boom in history may be about to take place in China at the turn of the century (Economist, 1993). This prediction is based on the estimation that China has 60 million people with an annual income above the magic threshold of US$1,000 – the threshold thought to be necessary for spending on non-necessities like colour televisions and washing machines. The figure can rise to 200 million by the year 2000 (Economist). Some visionaries believe it will be possible that by early next century scores of millions of Chinese will have risen above the US$4,000 threshold. That is when people begin buying cars (Economist).

[1] World Bank Country Reports, 1997.

The booming economy in China has fueled the growth of its advertising industry. There was very little commercial advertising in China during the Cultural Revolution (1966-76). Since its comeback in 1979, the industry has developed fast, averaging 50 percent growth a year in advertising expenditures (Aab, Johnston & Lohtia, 1995). Continued growth is predicted to be at least 30 percent a year. In 1995, advertising business volume hit 27 billion yuan (about US$3.3 billion), 10 times the figure for 1990 (Xinhua, 1996). In 1995, there were 48,000 advertising companies across the country, as against 43,000 in the previous year (Xinhua).

The visible growth in the Chinese economy has caught the attention of businesses around the world. The promise of the market is irresistible. Today, the world's biggest McDonald's outlet is in China. Brand names like Coca-Cola, Marlboro, Seiko watch and BMW are household names. By the mid-1994, there were already close to 150 transnational advertising agencies working in various arrangements in China, some of which are joint ventures and representative offices (Chen, 1996).

As foreign advertising explodes in China, research in the area needs to accelerate also. This study attempts 1) to identify the most popular foreign advertising strategy used in China, 2) to determine the more important environmental factors influencing transferability of advertising strategy, 3) to ascertain the importance of changing advertising components to blend with local culture, 4) to examine if and how the attitudes, behaviors, or demographics of a foreign company relate to the advertising strategy used in China; 5) and, finally, to compare the results of this research with those of earlier studies to find out any new trends in the field.

To accomplish these research objectives, a survey of foreign advertisers in China was designed. It is the first such comprehensive survey undertaken for China.

II. Literature Review: Standardization vs. Localization

This study on international advertising strategies in China is a continuation of the debate on whether advertisers should standardize or localize in foreign markets. The point of departure in this debate is whether the market conditions in the world today warrant the standardized approach (Elinder 1965, Dunn 1966, Levitt 1983, Tansey, Hyman & Zinkhan 1990, De Mooij and Keegar 1991) or the specialized or localized approach (Britt 1974, Marquez 1975, Green, Cunningham, and Cunningham 1975, Harris 1984, Onkvisit & Shaw 1987, Tse et al 1989). The standardized approach in international advertising means the adoption of one advertisement for all markets. A specialized or localized approach refers to the use of different advertisements for different markets in order to adapt to local market conditions.

Theodore Levitt (1983) presented the best-known argument for standardization – "the growing homogenization of needs across borders" legitimates standardization. He described it as the globalization of markets. Levitt's strongest support was technology and the trend toward modernization. He believed that technology had become a powerful force that drove the world toward a converging commonality.

Yoram Wind, (1986) an advocate for adaptation, cautioned that one could not ignore the differences in different markets and the need to adapt to them. He contended that most international blunders stemmed from instances of cultural insensitivity – lack of awareness of values, and attitudes – that caused a strategy which was extremely successful in one country to prove wrong in another. Wind believed that the trend toward a homogenization of the peoples' wants did not exist and standardization was one of several possible strategies, along with differentiation and mixed strategies. Wind recommended "think globally, act locally".

Other researchers, such as Philip Kotler (1986), believed the "mixed approach" or the combination strategy – partly standardized and partly localized – was the most effective strategy. It was also called the contingency approach (Agrawal, 1995) because the strategy varied depending on the situation.

Kluckhohn's argument about the human nature lent support for the adoption of the combined approach: "every man is, in certain respects, (a) like all other men, (b) like some other men, and (c) like no other man" (Kluckhohn, 1962).

In a review of a 40-year debate in international advertising, Madhu Agrawal (1995) concluded that practitioners alternated between the adaptation approach and the standardization approach – preference for localization in the 1950s because of a lack of familiarity with international consumers and markets, the shift toward standardization in the 1960s as knowledge of international markets improved, the reversal toward greater adaptation in the 1970s as a result of the rising nationalistic forces and some well-publicized advertising blunders during the 1960s and the second reversal toward standardization in the 1980s which witnessed the rise of multinational advertising agencies. What is the trend in the 1990s?

Susan H.C. Tai (1997) conducted a survey on 87 multinationals that advertise in China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore. The study found that on the average among the four markets, 31 percent of the advertising decisions were made using the same strategy as their home market, while 68 percent used a different strategy. William L. James and John S. Hill (1991) found that 40 percent of the sales platforms and 37 percent of the creative contexts adopted the standardized approach. Robert Hite and Cynthia Fraser (1988) found that 66 percent of the companies they surveyed use a combination strategy. Only nine percent report use of standardized advertising while 37 percent adopt localized advertising. All three studies identified various factors relating to the advertising strategy used.

Agrawal also found that academicians, in contrast, have generally been consistent in advocating adaptation because cross-cultural studies have rarely shown similarities among consumers. Differences in market characteristics, industry conditions and other environmental variables also have invariably been found in the empirical studies leading to the conclusion that adaptation is necessary.

The differences between the practitioners and the academics apparently suggest that practitioners are motivated by a different set of factors in their advertising strategy decision making than the factors academics consider important.

This study attempts to help determine the trend of international advertising in the 1990s by finding out what is the popular international advertising strategy used in China. And instead of focusing on the factors researchers consider important, this study was designed to allow advertisers to rate the relative importance of various factors influencing transferability of advertising strategy and examine how the attitudes of advertisers relate to the advertising strategy used.

More specifically, this study set out to 1) examine the extent of the use of the standardized, localized and combination strategies in China, 2) determine the relative importance of various factors influencing transferability of advertising strategy, 3) analyze if and how the demographics of a foreign company relate to the advertising strategy used in China; 4) and if and how the attitudes of marketing executives influence the determination of advertising strategy used; 5) and, finally, to compare the results of this survey with those of earlier studies to find out any new trends in the field.

III. Research Methods

1. Samples

Samples were drawn from the Moody's Manual (1995) because a complete list of international advertisers in China was hard to find. The Moody's Manual (1995) was chosen because of its comprehensiveness. A very helpful feature of the Moody's Manual is that it lists all the countries a firm is operating in, and it also has a comprehensive separate volume for international corporations. Only those firms that have business in China were selected. Using this method, this researcher found a total of 873 companies. All of the 873 selected companies were surveyed in order to ensure adequate number of responses for this study. A total of 189 questionnaires were returned, of which 186 were usable. The response rate was about 21.6 percent. One major reason for the low response rate might be that the population from which samples were chosen is not specific enough for lack of information regarding advertising. Of all the international companies that do business in China, many may not advertise in China. If a list of international advertisers in China were available, the samples could be more on the target, and the return rate could be higher.

Companies from 16 countries that engage in 13 types of businesses responded to the survey (See Table 1). Some of these firms are involved in more than one type of business. About 50 percent of the companies have total sales between US$1 billion and US$25 billion (See Table 1). The majorities of the companies have over 26 subsidiaries across the globe (See Table 1) and are very experienced in international marketing (See Table 1). Also, for the majority of the responding companies, more than 50 percent of their total sales come from foreign markets (See Table 1).

2. The questionnaire

A self-administered, mail questionnaire was the data collecting instrument for the study. Questionnaires were mailed to vice presidents in charge of marketing. The survey was conducted between June-November 1996.

The questionnaire was divided into five parts: demographic variables of each company, advertising strategies used, advertising agencies used, importance of changing advertising components to blend with local culture and importance of environmental factors influencing transferability of advertising strategy.

Advertising strategy used is the most important part of the survey. One major purpose of the study is to determine how international companies advertise in China and what advertising strategies they use. The purpose of this question is to determine the general trend of foreign advertising in China. Three advertising strategies were included in the questionnaire: standardization, localization and combination strategies.

The demographic variables included in the survey were the place of headquarters of the firms, types of business, number of subsidiaries, years involved in international marketing, percentage of sales in foreign markets and total sales. These variables were included in order to investigate if demographics of a company relate to the advertising strategy used in China.

In the 'advertising agencies used' category, seven types of agencies were included: Hong Kong agencies, agencies in Taiwan or other Asian countries, Chinese mainland agencies, home-country agencies, international agencies/networks, corporate in-house agencies and foreign affiliates in-house agencies. Hong Kong agencies were singled out because many international advertisers in China have their commercials created in Hong Kong. The purpose of this survey question is to test if types of advertising agencies used relate to the advertising strategy used.

Items in the variable groups of localizing advertising components to blend with local culture and environmental factors were adapted from earlier studies (Hite & Fraser, 1988; Dunn, 1976).

Five advertising components were used in earlier studies (Hite & Fraser, 1988): language, product attributes, models, scenic background and colours of advertisements. In this study, two more components were added: music and humour, which vary greatly from culture to culture. The purpose of this part of the survey is to identify important items regarding localizing advertising components and to test if attitudes of the firms regarding these variables relate to the advertising strategy used.

To study the importance of environmental factors influencing transferability of advertising strategy, this study included 20 items for measurement, which were based on the eight factors extracted by S. Watson Dunn (1976). Dunn obtained the eight factors from an original pool of 194 variables he had gathered from past research studies, from the marketing literature, and from relevant theoretical works. After two surveys and factor solutions, he reduced the 194 variables to eight factors. Dunn did the factoring to produce meaningful dimensions. In 1988, Robert E. Hite and Cynthia Fraser (1988: 9-17) reorganized Dunn's eight factors and expanded the items to 11. The two researchers used the 11 items as the measuring tool to study how attitudes of the firms relate to the advertising strategy used.

Eleven of the 20 environmental items used in this study were adapted from the two earlier studies (Hite & Fraser, 1988; Dunn, 1976). They included: acceptance of trademark or brand name, transferability of slogan, level of consumer education, attitude toward country of product origin, degree of nationalism in China, competence of personnel in the China office, rate of economic growth, independence of media from government control, attitudes toward monetary gain, attitudes toward authority, eating patterns of market. These items deal with key dimensions of advertising transferability: market conditions, media conditions, economic environment, consumer attitudes and lifestyles.

Nine items specific to the Chinese conditions and culture were added: level of market affluence, media characteristics, level of government regulation, and attitudes toward work, individual goals, collective needs, face-saving, spending money, and attitudes toward sex roles. 'Level of market affluence' was added because earlier studies (James & Hill, 1991) found that market affluence affected the advertising strategy used. 'Media characteristics' and 'level of government regulation' were added because media in China are still state owned, and the level of government regulation is still comparatively high. The six 'attitudes' items were added because they are central to the Chinese cultural values. The purpose of this survey question is to find out the relative importance of these environmental factors, and if the attitudes of the firms relate to the advertising strategy used.

Measurement of the importance of changing advertising components and the importance of environmental factors was on a five-point scale, with five as 'very important' and one as 'not at all important'.

3. Statistical tests

The statistical package, SPSS, was used for the quantitative analysis of the data collected. Descriptive analysis and Chi square tests were conducted. Descriptive statistics was used to profile sample companies, determine the extent of the use of the standardization, localization and combination advertising strategies and tabulate the importance of localizing advertising components and environmental factors.

Chi square tests were done to find out the associations between the variables and the advertising strategies used in China. As the frequencies in some of the cells were low, some cells were combined in Chi square tests.

IV. Results

1. Combination strategy is the popular choice

Out of a total of 186 usable responses, predominant majorities, 140 companies, use the combination strategy – that is, partly localized and partly standardized. That makes up 77 percent of the total. Significantly lower in number, some 22 international companies, about 12 percent, use the specialized or localized strategy in China, while 19 companies, 10 percent, use the standardized strategy (See Table 2). The results indicate a clear trend toward the use of the combination strategy in China.

2. International advertising agencies are the favorites

Of the seven types of advertising agencies, international agencies are the ones used most, followed by home-country agencies and corporate in-house agencies (See Table 1). A distant fourth are the Hong Kong advertising agencies followed by agencies in the Chinese mainland and foreign affiliates in-house agency. The ones that register the lowest frequency are the advertising agencies in Taiwan. Some of the corporations use more than one type of agencies. The results show a preference for international agencies. This suggests that foreign advertisers in China need the experiences of the international agencies in foreign markets.

3. Localizing language is rated the most important

Of the seven advertising components studied, localizing language to blend with local culture is rated as "most important" in advertising transferability. Next in order of importance are the need to localize product attributes, models, colours of advertisements, humor, scenic background and music (See Figure 1).

4. "Acceptance of trademark" is perceived to be the key to advertising transferability

Of the 20 environmental factors studied, acceptance of trademark or brand name is rated as the most important in affecting transferring foreign advertisements to China. Next in importance is the group of factors concerning the economy, the market and the advertising industry: competence of personnel in the China office, rate of economic growth, transferability of slogan, level of market affluence and level of consumer education. Last in order of importance is the group of factors concerning Chinese cultural values, lifestyles, media and control – attitude toward country of product origin, media characteristics, level of government regulation, attitudes toward spending money, monetary gain, individual goals, face-saving, work, degree of nationalism in China, independence of media from government control, attitudes toward collective needs, authority, sex roles and eating patterns of the market. (See Figure 2)

5. The number of subsidiaries is a major factor

Chi square test results show that, of all the demographic variables, only the number of subsidiaries relates to the advertising strategy used (See Table 3). Figure 3 illustrates that companies with fewer subsidiaries are more likely to use the standardized strategy while companies with more subsidiaries are more likely to use localized strategy.

6. Perceptions of Chinese culture make the difference

Chi square test results show that the advertising strategy used relates to the rated importance of localizing language and localizing product attributes, and the rated importance of three of the 20 environmental factors: attitude toward country of product origin, attitudes toward collective needs and attitudes toward authority (See Table 3).

V. Discussions

1. Technology and modernization may not lead to standardization

The survey results have identified the trend of international advertising in China as toward the combination or mixed strategy. The majority of the companies surveyed have abandoned standardization. This study shows a higher percentage of companies using the combination strategy and a lower percentage of companies using specialized strategy compared with Hite and Fraser study (1988), which surveyed American transnational corporations. But samples in this study tend to be larger firms.

The popularity of the combination strategy in China casts doubt on the arguments for standardization. Levitt's strongest support for standardization is technology and the trend toward modernization. Today's China is modernizing fast. Imports of advanced technology are top priority of the country. In 1997, China is the tenth largest trading nation in the world and attracts more foreign direct investment than any country except the United States.[1] The popularity of the combination strategy in China indicates that technology and the trend toward modernization do not necessarily warrant standardization in foreign markets.

One other factor that could relate to standardization is market affluence. James and Hill (1991) suggested that standardization opportunities were most likely to occur in markets with per capita annual income less than US$6,000. In 1996, per capita annual income in urban

[1] World Bank Country Report, 1997.

China was 4377.2 yuan[2] (about US$497). Income in rural China was much lower. However, the majority of the advertisers still choose to use the combination strategy. This shows that less affluent markets, such as China, may not necessarily be the less competitive markets. Even though advertisers are more likely to standardize in less affluent markets as James and Hill study has shown, adaptation is still preferred in emerging markets of developing economies like China. This may suggest that as the global trade is becoming more competitive, advertisers are adopting a long-term strategy-- looking to the future of a market.

The popularity of the combination strategy in China also shows that foreign advertisers recognize China as a distinctive market and thus, the need to adapt. That is why they believe that it is important to localize advertising components to blend with the Chinese culture and that most of the 20 environmental factors in China are rated as important in advertising transferability. The adoption of the combination strategy also shows that foreign advertisers decide that the characteristics of the Chinese market cannot be ignored.

The popularity of the combination strategy signals the increasing sophistication of international advertising when advertisers choose to partly standardize and partly localize in hopes of combining the advantages of both strategies -- consistent brand image and successful communication accommodating cultural differences. Future studies can focus more on what has been standardized and what has been localized and why. The results of this study can help shed some light on the trend of international advertising in the 1990s after the dramatic shifts in the last four decades.

2. The influence of Chinese culture on advertising strategies used

The number of subsidiaries is the only demographic variable that directly relates to the advertising strategy used. When companies have more subsidiaries, their markets are more likely to be widely scattered across the world and thus, a standardized strategy may not be

[2] China Statistics Yearbook, 1996.

appropriate for all the markets. Also more subsidiaries may mean bigger operations in foreign markets and more resources for advertising. Adaptation in most cases costs more than standardization but may result in higher economic returns, which can justify the cost.

Chi square test results show that the association between advertising strategy and the other three demographic variables are not significant. However, an analysis of Chi square test crosstabs and bar charts (Figure 4, 5, 6) shows an identifiable pattern -- higher total sales and percentage of foreign sales, and more years in international marketing suggest more opportunities for localization and vice versa. The reason may also be that higher sales guarantee the resources for localization. More years of international marketing also suggest more possibilities for localization, which may be attributed to the fact that the longer a firm stays in a foreign market, the better it knows the market and the more it sees the need to adapt. But more studies are needed to look into this relationship.

Chi square test also fails to show associations between advertising strategy and the following three variable groups: place of headquarters, types of business and advertising agencies used (See Table 3).

However, test results show more variations in the advertising strategy used based on place of headquarters than on types of business. For each business type, the majority of companies use the combination strategy while only a small number of companies use either standardized or localized strategies. The only exception is the electronics industry where no company uses localized strategy. But overall in this study, type of business fails to be a significant factor in influencing the advertising strategy used as is shown by the studies by James and Hill (1991), and Tai (1997).

Also a closer look at the crosstabs of Chi square test results shows that international agencies, home country and corporate in-house agencies are more likely to standardize, while local agencies and foreign affiliates agencies are more likely to adapt. As a matter of fact, none of the agencies in the second group uses the standardized strategy. This may be due to the different perspectives and experiences of the professionals in international versus local agencies. Most professionals in local agencies are more familiar with the Chinese culture than staff at international, home-country and corporate in-house agencies and thus, may be more sensitive to cultural differences regarding marketing.

Changing language and product attributes to blend with local culture are rated as the two most important factors in that variable group regarding advertising transfer, which is consistent with the results of Hite and Fraser study (1988). Given the fact that many commercials get their messages across through language, the importance of localizing language is hard to over-emphasize. The majority of the companies also acknowledge the importance of localizing product attributes. The high rating of the factor shows that foreign advertisers in China recognize the possibility that people may need the same product but for different reasons, depending on the local culture. And even "homogenization of needs" across borders may not justify standardization. Anthropologist Clark Wissler summarized the relationship between culture and needs this way: culture universals stop at biological needs or drives (White, 1964). "The only thing one might term cultural is man's response to his innate drives. Thus, eating is biological, but how one satisfies one's hunger is cultural, and in this respect people are dissimilar in different parts of the world. Sex, too, is biological; but with whom and how it is permitted is cultural (White)."

Of the seven advertising components, only the rated importance of localizing language and product attributes relates to the advertising strategy used. Even though most advertisers rate the two items as very important, there are significant differences among the three advertising strategy groups in the rated importance of them. Firms using the standardized strategy rate the two items much less important than firms using either the localized or combination strategy.

Of the 20 environmental factors, "acceptance of trademark or brand name" is rated as the most important regarding transferability of advertising, which is also consistent with the results of Hite and Fraser's study. The success and popularity of Coca-Cola, Nike, Philips electrical appliances in China may testify to the importance of acceptance of brand names. Next in importance are the group of factors about economic and market conditions. It is interesting to note that most of the factors in this group are environmental factors. After all, purchasing decisions are limited by purchasing power, and consumer choices depend on the level of consumer education. It is interesting to note that even though most advertisers agree that these factors are very important to the transferability of advertising strategy, they do not relate to the advertising strategy used. In other words, there are no significant differences among the three advertising strategy groups in rating the importance of these factors.

Last is the group of factors concerning Chinese cultural values, lifestyles and the media. Most of the factors in this group are attitudinal and they are central to the Chinese cultural values. Of this group, it is the rated importance of attitudes toward country of product origin, attitudes toward authority and attitudes toward collective needs that relates to the advertising strategy used.

Firms that standardize rate the attitudes toward country of product origin more important than firms using either the combination or localized strategy do. In its history China had always been proud of its cultural and economic development and considered itself the center of the earth. But in more modern times, China was invaded, humiliated, and partly occupied by various foreign powers. The Chinese do remember their history. But their attitudes toward countries of the world are sometimes complicated by the economic needs they face.

Firms using the standardized strategy rate the attitudes toward collective needs and authority much less important than firms adopting the localized or combination strategy do. In the Chinese culture, authorities are to be respected and obeyed, and collective needs are more important than individual goals. And these are not just attitudes or beliefs; they are the guidelines for people's actions. However, with the economic reforms underway in China, these traditional cultural values are facing serious challenges.

The associations between advertising strategy and the rated importance of the attitudes toward face-saving and monetary gain are not significant statistically. But the pattern is clear – firms using standardized strategy rate the two attitudes much less important than firms using the localized and combination strategy. In Chinese culture, "the face" is very important; it means respect, honor, influence or vanity.

Of the factors that relate to the advertising strategy used, firms that standardize rate all the factors, except the attitudes toward country of product origin, much less important than firms using the other two strategies. This suggests that attitudes of the advertisers significantly influence the advertising strategy used. It is their attitudes toward mostly Chinese cultural values that relate to the advertising strategy they use. The more important they rate those factors, the more likely they adapt.

Of the 20 environmental factors, firms that standardize rate only three factors as more important than firms using the other two strategies do: transferability of slogan, country of product origin and independence of media from government control. This suggests that firms using standardization seems to be less concerned with cultural values in China than with marketing tools and product characteristics.

In conclusion, this study has found that most international advertisers in China use the combination strategy.

Demographic and environmental factors are not as influential as Chinese cultural values in the determination of the advertising strategy used as what relates to the advertising strategy used in China is mostly the rated importance of Chinese cultural values. The only demographic variable that relates to the advertising strategy used is the number of subsidiaries. Hite and Fraser also found that demographic variables fail to be a factor in influencing advertising strategy used. This may not be surprising considering the fact that the Chinese culture runs back 2,000 years. Similar studies in other countries are needed to find out whether the predominant influence of local culture in the advertising strategy used is a part of the trend of international advertising in 1990s or specific to the Chinese market.

Another important finding of the study is that international marketing executives' perception of Chinese culture influences the advertising strategy used. International advertisers in China are encouraged to examine their own attitudes toward Chinese cultural values because what they believe about the Chinese culture convinces them what advertising strategy to use. As the attitudes of advertisers relate to the advertising strategy used, those attitudes should be based on solid knowledge of the Chinese culture rather than superficial impressions of it, which may mislead in decision making and result in disasters in marketing.

International advertisers in China are also recommended to keep in mind that China is a competitive market even though it is still a less affluent market. If they believe that standardization is enough for low-income markets like China, they may face serious competition from other advertisers who recognize Chinese cultural differences and are willing to adapt. They are also recommended to pay more attention to the combination strategy, which may become the most popular and practical advertising strategy in the years to come.

Future studies can also examine the combination strategy to see what is standardized and what is localized and how those decisions are made. Separate studies can investigate the attitudes of international marketing executives toward cultures in foreign markets. Instead of debating on whether local cultures are different enough to warrant adaptation, it may be high time we turned our attention to whether it is generally true in the 1990s that cultural factors influence advertising strategy more than economic or marketing conditions or demographic variables of a firm, and why local cultures seem to influence some international marketing executives more than others.

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Table 1 Description of the sample

Country	number
USA	83
Germany	25
France	11
UK	11
Switzerland	9
Sweden	8
Finland	7
Denmark	5
Japan	5
Netherlands	5
Belgium	4
Australia	3
Italy	3
Norway	3
Austria	2
Singapore	2
Total	186

Type of Business	number
industrial materials	58
capital goods	25
consumer goods	23
electronics	15
medical products	14
automotive	13
business service: non-ad	12
travel/tourism	9
business service: ad	7
natural resources	7
conglomerate	5
other	5
construction	4
food & beverages	4

Preparation of Advertising Campaigns	number
international agency/network	62
home-country ad agency	48
corporate in-house agency	44
HK advertising agency	28
Chinese mainland ad agency	27
foreign affiliates in-house agency	9
ad agency in Taiwan & Asian states	3

Number of Subsidiaries	number
5 or less	12
6-10	16
11-25	29
26-50	39
over 50	84
total	180

Years in International Marketing	
5 or less	12
6-10	4
11-15	9
16-20	9
21-25	15
over 25	137
total	186

Percent of Sales in Foreign Markets	
10% or less	2
11-25%	15
26-50%	54
51-75%	56
over 75%	52
total	179

Total Sales	
less than $100 million	10
$100 million-$499 million	33
$500 million-$999 million	27
$1 billion-$25 billion	93
$26 billiion-$50 billion	8
over $50 billion	11
total	182

Table 2 Advertising Strategy

	number	percent
standardized	19	10.50%
localized	22	12.15%
combination	140	77.35%
total	181	100.00%

Table 3 Chi² of Associations between ad Strategies and Variables Pearson Chi-square

Variable	value	df	Asymp. Sig	
place of headquarters	28.829	32	.628	
Type of Business	9.059	8	.337	
Ad agencies used	10.070	6	.122	
number of subsidiaries	10.259	4	0.036	*
years in international marketing	2.879	4	0.578	
percent of sales in foreign markets	4.551	4	0.337	
total sales	5.574	4	0.233	
language	22.232	6	0.001	*
product attributes	13.157	6	0.041	*
humor	4.652	4	0.325	
models	3.334	4	0.503	
colors of ad	2.564	4	0.633	
scenic background	3.229	4	0.520	
music	1.798	6	0.937	
acceptance of trademark	2.714	2	0.257	
competence of personnel in China office	1.121	6	0.981	
transferability of slogan	8.810	6	0.185	
attitude toward country of product origin	13.134	6	0.041	*
rate of economic growth	9.249	6	0.160	
level of government regulation	1.775	6	0.939	
media characteristics	8.875	6	0.181	
attitudes toward face-saving	11.020	6	0.088	
level of consumer education	8.287	6	0.218	
level of market affluence	1.211	6	0.976	
independence of media from government control	6.793	6	0.340	
attitudes toward monetary gain	11.321	6	0.079	
attitudes toward work	4.037	6	0.671	
attitudes toward individual goals	8.611	6	0.197	
degree of nationalism	4.243	6	0.644	
attitudes toward spending money	9.357	6	0.154	
attitudes toward authority	18.925	8	0.015	*
attitudes toward collective needs	17.001	6	0.009	*
eating patterns of market	8.859	6	0.182	
attitudes toward sex roles	6.506	6	0.369	

Note: * Significant at 0.05

Figure 1 Importance of Localizing Advertising Components

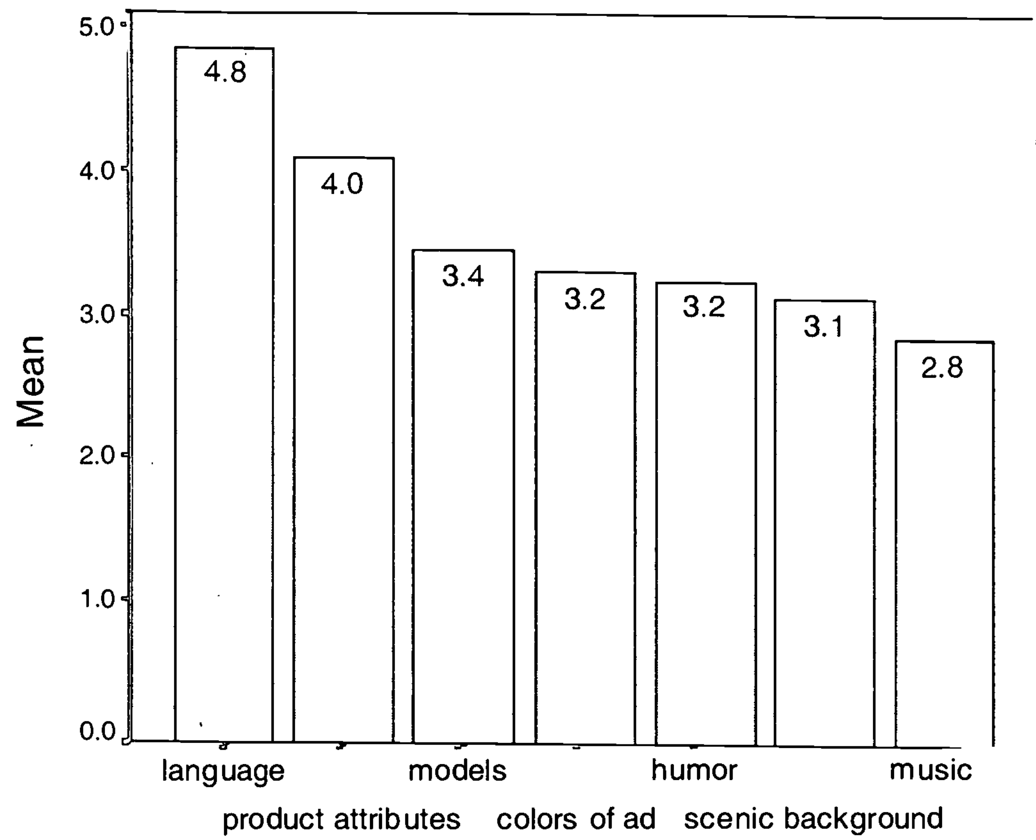


Figure 2 Importance of Environmental Factors Regarding Transfer

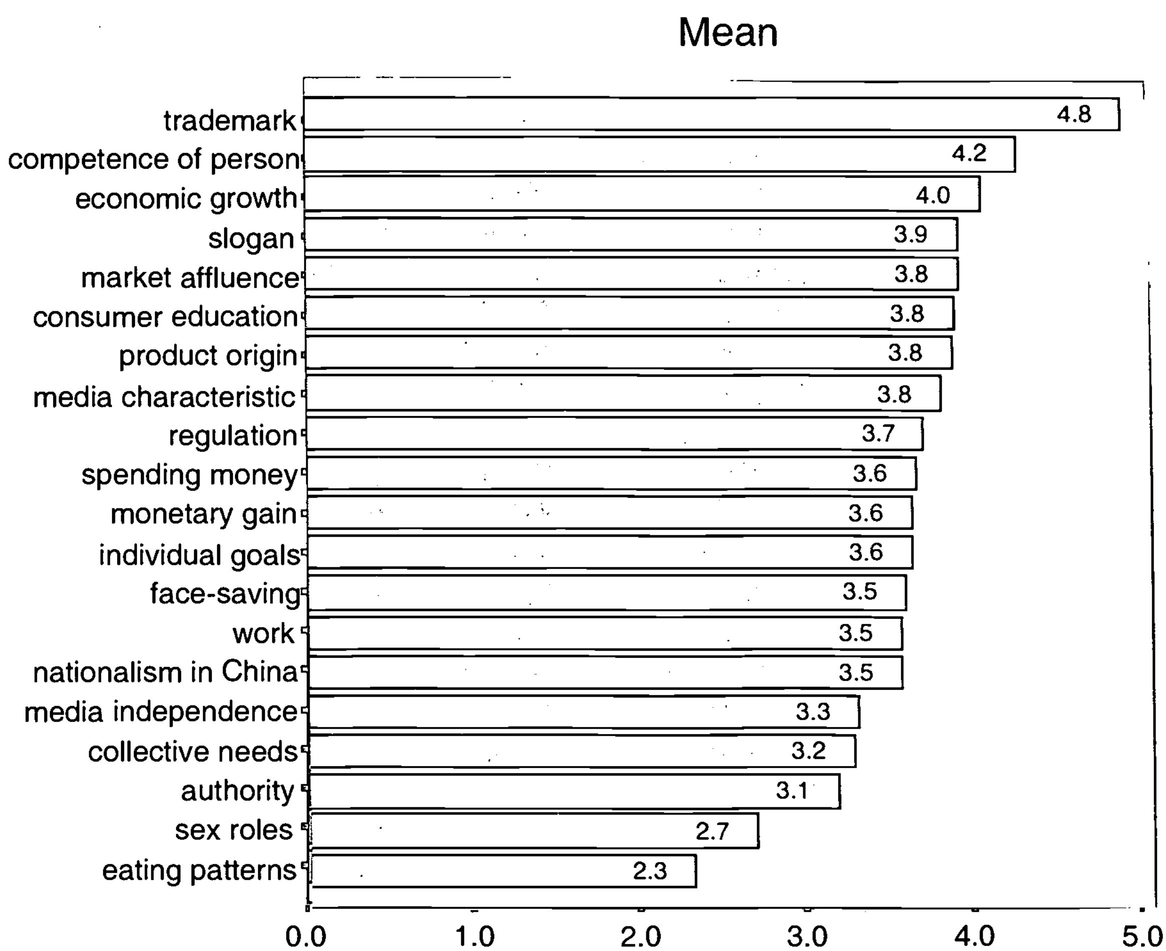


Figure 3 Advertising Strategy by Number of Subsidiaries

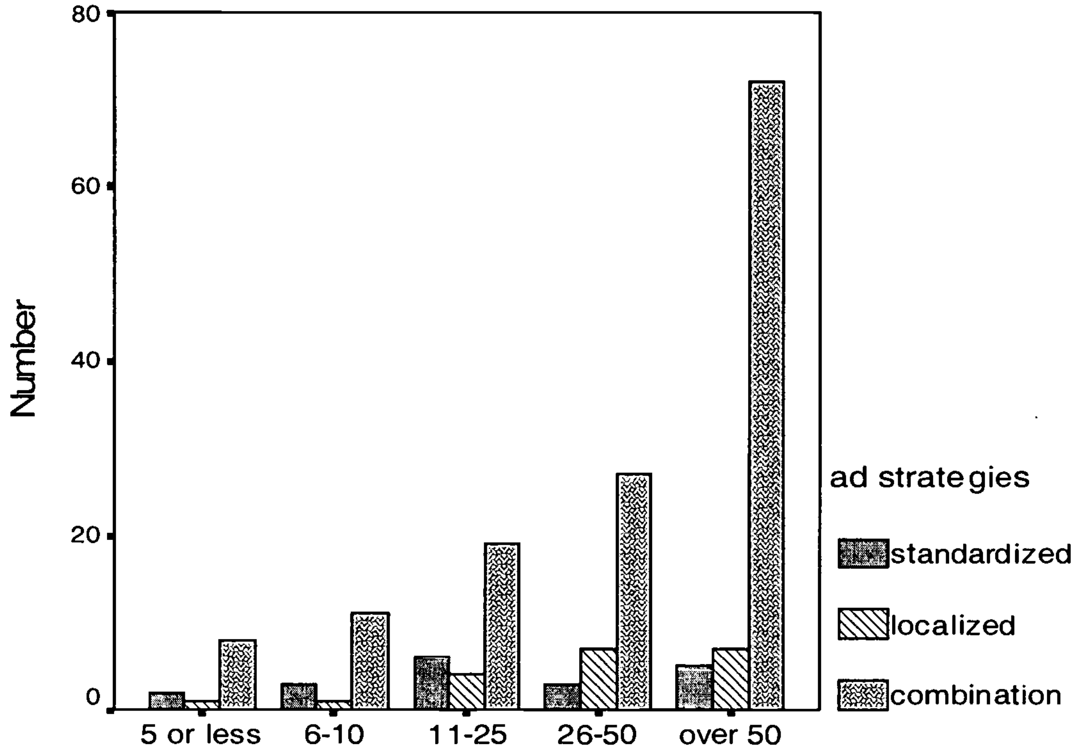
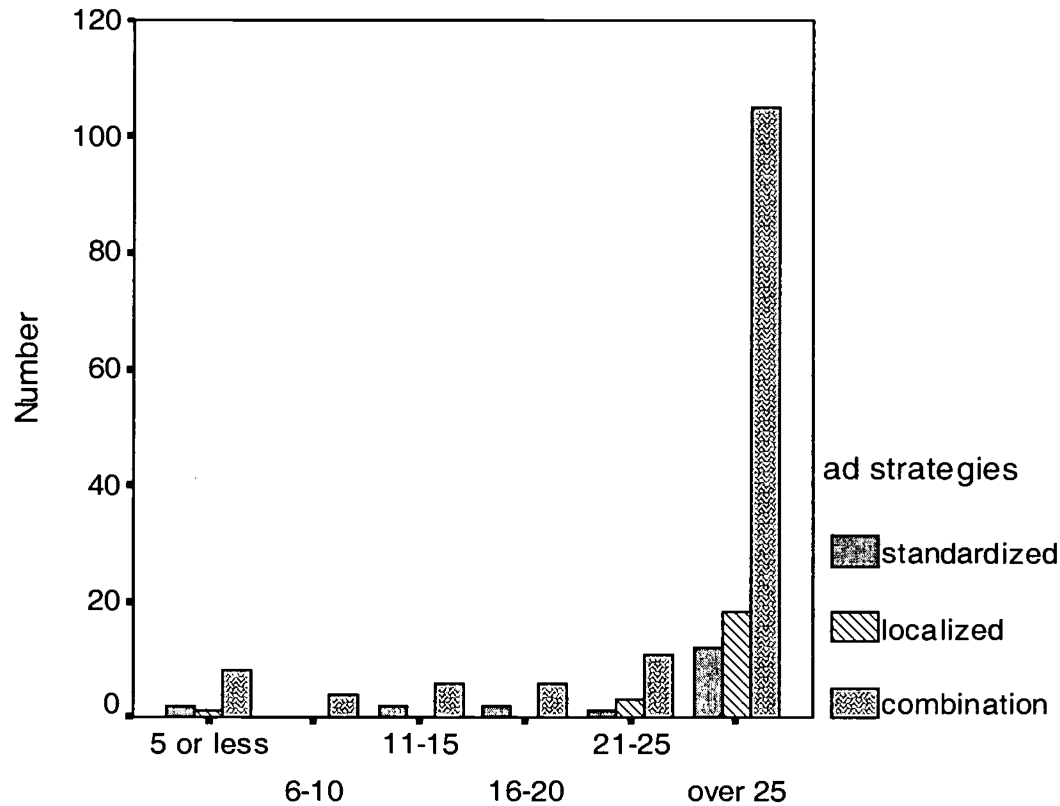


Figure 4 Advertising Strategy by Years in International Marketing



195

Figure 5 Advertising Strategy by Percent of Sales in Foreign Markets

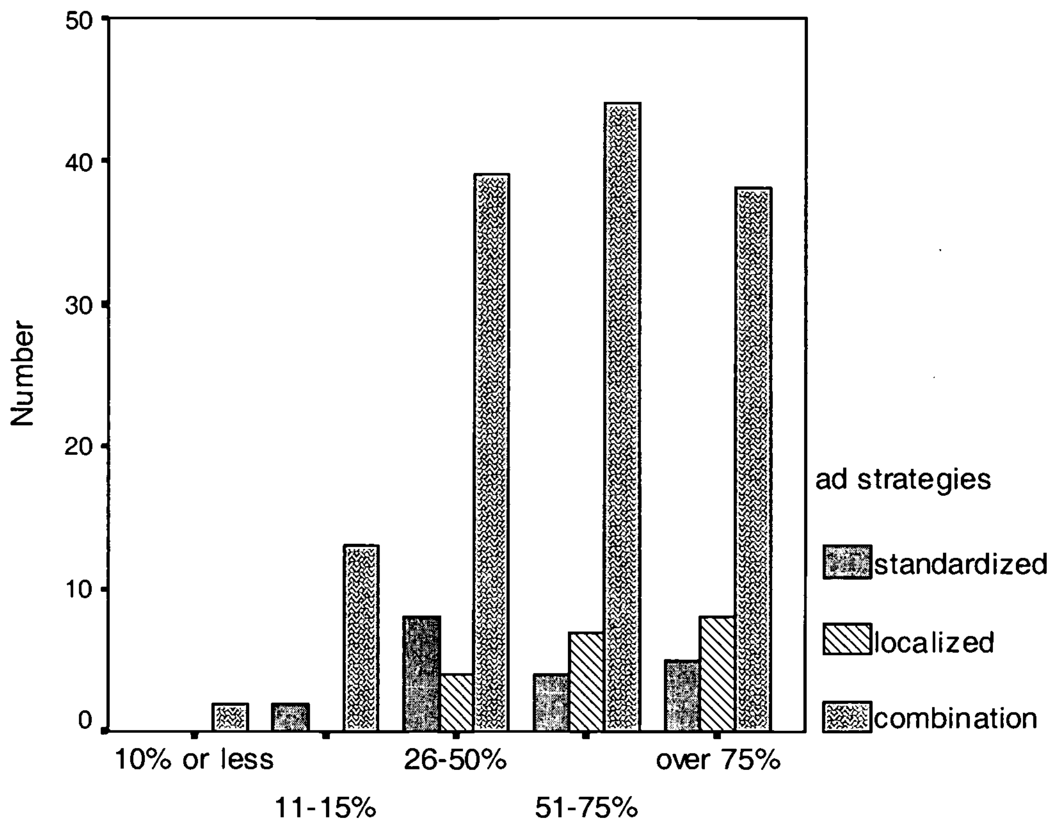
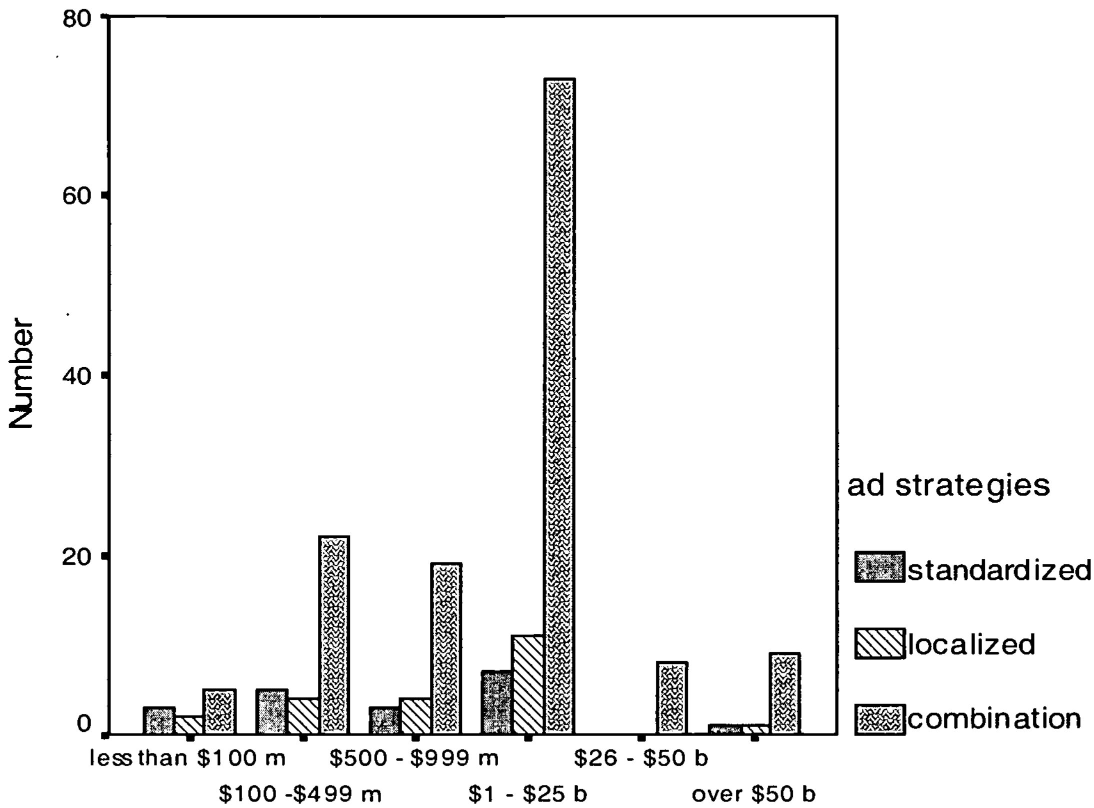


Figure 6 Advertising Strategy by Total Sales



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Does Reputation Management Reap Rewards?

A Path Analysis of Corporate Reputation Advertising's Impacts on Brand Attitudes and Purchase Decisions

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Does Reputation Management Reap Rewards?

A Path Analysis of Corporate Reputation Advertising's Impacts on Brand Attitudes and Purchase Decisions

Abstract

Claims are made for the importance of corporate reputation as essential to the effective, integrated marketing of a company's branded products. Based on the Elaboration Likelihood and Combined-Effects Models of persuasion theory, an experiment was conducted to examine the value of one tool in corporate reputation management – the corporate ad or corporate image ad. Using path analysis, findings indicate that the corporate reputation ad had a greater impact on purchase intention under low involvement conditions than under high involvement conditions. Subjects who are unmotivated seem to rely more heavily on reputation information when making a purchase decision. Notably, the reputation ad had no indirect impact in mediating the effects of attitude toward the brand and the brand ad on purchase intention. Reputation effects in this study impacted only in a direct path upon purchase decision. The Combined-Effects Model showed greater promise than the Elaboration Likelihood Model for further research on reputation and strategic communication campaign planning.

Introduction

Purpose of the Study

Historically, advertising in the United States has been oriented toward the product and the brand. With the advent of modern corporations that offer many products and services, new types of advertising, such as corporate advertising and institutional advertising, have appeared. Numerous articles have described the ways in which corporate advertising has fostered positive public attitudes toward businesses (Schumann D.W., Hathcote J.M. & West S, 1991). Corporate advertising is used to establish, alter or maintain a corporation's identity. In fact, much of corporate advertising serves as a support function to promote a corporation's character and personality to consumers. In effect, corporate advertising is a key tool in developing and maintaining the corporation's reputation.

Quite obviously, both corporate ads and brand ads are subject to many of the same dynamics of interest to information processing researchers. Using the Elaboration Likelihood Model and the combined-influence hypothesis as a framework, this study will examine central versus peripheral route processing by measuring consumers' attitudes toward a brand, a brand ad and a corporate ad.

Several studies, such as MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch (1986), Droge (1989), Yi (1990), MacKenzie and Spreng (1992), and Brown and Stayman (1992) have found that consumers' attitudes toward ads are formed using the peripheral route. Other studies, such as Burton and Lichenstein (1988), Muehling and Laczniak (1988), MacKenzie and Lutz (1989), Homer (1990), Miniard, Bhatla, and Rose (1990), and Mick (1992), however, have indicated that the central-route is used to form consumers' attitudes toward the ad. Together, these studies indicate that, because subjects' attitudes toward ads significantly affect brand attitude and purchase intention for highly involved subjects, both the central and peripheral route can be used simultaneously. Kenneth R. Lord, Myung-Soo Lee and Paul L. Sauer (1995) proposed this combined-influence hypothesis, which is supported by their research.

Corporate reputation, built in part on corporate image advertising, is based on how the company conducts or is perceived as conducting its business (Morley, 1998). Corporate reputation is a set of attributes ascribed to a firm, inferred from the firm's past actions, about which one infers that reliability is an attribute of this person or company. By doing so, one makes judgments about past infomation and uses these signals to form beliefs in predicting future actions (Weigelt & Camerer, 1988, p. 443). Likewise, corporate image is like a picture in a consumer's mind about a corporation's character and personality (Tillman and Lorpatrick, 1968). This study defines corporate reputation advertising as promoting a corporation's character and personality to consumers, and brand advertising as promoting a corporation's brand to consumers.

Advertising for Corporate Reputation

In today's corporate world, everything from toothpaste to internet browsers has become a commodity. Frequently, there is little or no distinction between prices, technologies, or product capabilities. A company's reputation, therefore, can be the overriding basis for a consumer's purchasing decision. Whether a company is ethical and honest, environmentally friendly, and responsive to customers' needs can be a company's most powerful asset or its costliest liability (Caudron, 1997, p. 13). Reputational effects are purported to impact everything from stock values of the company to employee morale to the effectiveness of brand advertising, as well as attitudes toward the brand itself.

Traditionally, lack of a widely accepted measure of reputation has caused difficulty in creating well-reasoned and defensible answers about corporate reputation and reputational dymnamics (Frombrun & Van Riel, 1997; Hammond, Annis & Slocum, 1996). Only recently, however, has formal research outlined some of the strategic planning implications behind corporate reputation. For example, Hammond, Annis & Slocum, (1996) found that corporate reputation is linked with a firm's bottom-line financial performance. Investors may consider less socially responsibile organizations riskier investments because of possible governmental intervention. Additionally, if a firm is viewed as socially rsponsible it may have a relatively low financial risk as a result of its strong relationship with the surrounding community (p.160). Weigelt and Camerer (1988) further the notion that bottom-line financial success is linked with corporate reputation by stating that reputation is an asset vital to an organization's financial success. McGuire, Schneeweiss and Branch (1994) provide evidence suggesting that the reputation-financial performance effect is a two-way process: a firm's financial performance affects its reputation and its reputation affects its performance.

Morley (1998) suggests that in today's global business atmosphere, a solid corporate reputation will increase customer loyalty to the products of companies with good reputations. A good reputation allows for easier product introduction because customers feel that a "guarantee" comes with it. Bromley (1993) even suggests that a good image or reputation can allow a company not only to implement its present plans, but also to pursue its goals in the future. This has been described as the"halo effect" — where a generally positive attitude toward the company lends the company to immunity to a certain extent (Bromley, 1993). Goldberg and Hartwick (1993) found evidence of this in an experiment investigating the combined effects of a company's reputation and advertisements on product evaluations. Subjects who formed a negative evaluation of the company based on a bad reputation found the advertisements less credible and rated the products less favorably than those who received positive reputation information about the company.

While managing a corporate reputation involves many factors, research suggests that advertising has been successful in promoting corporate reputations and company position statements to various audiences (Schumann, Hathcote, & West, 1991). Corporate advertising can help better position American products against the competition, to meet increased pressure from consumer groups and politicians, and to repair the corporate reputations of American companies that are criticized for their roles in creating adverse environmental conditions. Schumann, Hathcote, and West (1991) compiled a summary of the corporate image ad studies in Table 1. Almost all of the studies reported ratings of recognition, image and overall corporate reputation. Levine (1989) said "As business attempts to respond, corporate advertising is expected to promote images of environmentally responsible corporate citizens."

[Insert Table 1 about here]

The Brand Image and Corporate Image

Haedrich (1993) identified two levels of images: brand and corporate. He said that, in the advertising of brand image, "corporations address the extent to which each marketing instrument contributes to the brand image and the extent to which that image enhances desired economic behavior of markets." Corporate images, however, consist of not only brand images, but also other factors such as the quality of management, corporate leadership and employee orientation.

Frombrun and Van Reil contend that in marketing research, "reputation," often labeled brand image focuses on the nature of information processing, resulting in "pictures in the heads" of external subjects, attributing cognitive and affective meaning to cues received about an object they were directly or indirectly confronted with (p.7). Objects in advertising and marketing research are usually products (such as beer, toothpaste, internet browsers), while consumers are the principal subject of analyses. However, Page (1998) contends that to be useful, the lessons learned from this marketing view of reputation must be expanded to move beyond just the creation of brand equity to increase "share of mind" (p.6). Among the determinants of "share of mind" is *reputation*: the confidence one has that a product baring a particular brand will live up to the producer's name.

Druckenmiller (1993) stated that a corporate reputation must be given continual attention because "it must carry a heavier load than corporate brands." Good corporate reputations are the sum of many parts, including high quality products and services, years of recognition equity invested in a familiar logo, a well-known CEO, sponsorship of a high-profile event, and memorable advertising (p.40).

Using factor-analysis, Lewis C. Winters (1986) categorized corporate image into three components: business conduct/marketing factors; social conduct/marketing factors; and contributions factors. He found that "marketing image is an important component of overall attitude toward a company. Corporate advertising messages should be aimed at improving the social conduct image of the company, (e.g., environmental image). Contribution messages would have the least impact on overall attitude toward the company." Business conduct/marketing image or reputation is the most important component of corporate image in predicting overall favorability toward the corporation.

A study by Frombrun and Shanley (1990), investigating the factors that influence corporate reputation found that audiences (publics) construct reputations on the basis of three main things. First, publics consider information about the firm's relative structural positions within the organizational fields, specifically using market and accounting signals indicating performance. Second, institutional signals indicating conformity to social norms are considered. And third, strategy signals indicating strategic postures influence how publics construct reputation.

Corporations can harmonize their brand and corporate images by way of strategic advertising campaigns. Corporations can likewise bring their perceived images into harmony with those of all relevant populations. Haedrich (1993) insisted that "to harmonize these images, the planning of marketing and public relations should be integrated at the level of strategic management." Corporate leadership can meet the overlapping demands of the market and society by integrating marketing, advertising, and public relations under the common roof of strategic corporate planning and making them equal instruments of management.

Theoretical Background

The Elaboration Likelihood Model. The Elaboration Likelihood Model was developed within many fields of study, such as psychological counseling, and consumers' attitudes in advertising and has received solid empirical support. The ELM considers varying degrees of subject or client interest as critical variables in determining how attitudes are formed and what types of attitudes are formed (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Petty, Cacioppo, & Heesacker, in press). Petty and Cacioppo (1982) insisted that:

> Enduring attitude change, then, appears to depend on the likelihood that an issue or argument will be elaborated upon (thought about). It doesn't make sense for a person to think carefully about every message received daily. Most of the messages that we receive, in fact, are on issues that are relatively trivial, and it is not worth our time and energy to scrutinize them carefully.

Reviews of attitude change study that measure persistence (Cook & Flay, 1978; Petty, 1977b) also support the view that the active cognitive involvement of a person in the persuasion situation is crucial for enduring attitude changes.

The Elaboration Likelihood Model posits two basic routes of attitude change (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). The central route is taken when persuasion results from thinking about the issue or argument under consideration. The peripheral route is taken when persuasion comes from non-issue-relevant concern, or cues, such as impression management, the attractiveness of the message's source, or one's social role. This Elaboration Likelihood Model holds that consumers who are both motivated (personally concerned) and able to cognitively process the content of a persuasive message are likely to be persuaded by the central route. Consumers who are not motivated and able to think about the persuasive message are likely to be persuaded by the peripheral route.

Petty and Cacioppo (1982) have found that if the new attitudes of consumers results from the central route (issue-relevant cognitive activity), attitude change is likely to be relatively enduring. However, if the new attitude of consumers results from the peripheral route (various persuasion cues in the situation), the attitude is likely to exist only as long as the cues remain salient.

The Central Route versus The Peripheral Route. The central route involves a subject's personal thoughts about a messages and his own evaluation of the arguments presented. Attitude change using the central route is more difficult to achieve than attitude change using the peripheral route. However, attitude change using the central route lasts longer and influences subjects' and consumers' behaviors more powerfully.

Petty and Cacioppo (1982) noted that:

> Clearly, the elaboration-likelihood model indicates that it is quite difficult to produce an enduring attitude change by exposing people to a persuasive communication. The recipient of the message must have both the motivation and the ability to process

the information contained in the communication, and the information presented must elicit favorable cognitive responses that are rehearsed and stored in long-term memory.

On the peripheral route, subjects select, from the persuasion context, some cue associated favorably or unfavorably with the attitude topic. When the cue is no longer present or recalled, the previous attitudes are said to be elastic. Attitude changes using the peripheral route are easily produced in the laboratory but do not influence a subject's behavior as strongly as the central route (Petty, Cacioppo, & Heesacker, in press).

Low and High Involvement. This Elaboration Likelihood Model holds that when involvement is high, people are likely to be persuaded by the central route. When involvement is low, however, people are likely to be persuaded by the peripheral route. Petty and Cacioppo (1982) noted the relationship between the degree of personal relevance and issue-relevant cognitive activity. They found that:

In studies where issue-relevant cognitive activity was likely to be intense (e.g., role-playing studies, experiments employing personally relevant issues, etc.), the attitude changes produced have been found to be relatively enduring. On the other hand, in studies where issue-relevant cognitive activity was likely to be weak (e.g., experiments employing issues of little personal relevance), the initial attitude changes produced have been relatively short-lived.

In one study, Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann (1983) studied the impact of the two routes using a print advertisement for a fictitious disposable razor. They found that the quality of the arguments (strong versus weak message claims about the product) had a strong impact on product evaluation under high involvement conditions and a weaker, but still significant, effect under low involvement conditions. In contrast, endorser manipulation (celebrities versus average citizens) influenced product attitude only for those subjects less involved during message processing (Paul W. Miniard, Peter R. Dickson and Kenneth R, Lord, 1988).

The Peripheral Cue Hypothesis and the Attitude Toward Ads. Using the Petty and Cacioppo's Elaboration Likelihood Model, Lutz, MacKenzie, and Belch (1986) examined the way in which the attitude toward an ad mediates brand attitude and purchase intention by testing four alternative hypotheses. Their results indicated the attitude toward an ad is a peripheral process on the part of their subjects.

MacKenzie and Spreng (1992) examined the role of central and peripheral processes in driving brand attitude and purchase intention under varying levels of motivation. They assumed the attitude toward an ad operated exclusively as a peripheral route. Specifically, they observed that "increasing motivation decreases the impact of a peripheral cue (the attitude toward the ad) on brand attitude." Their hypotheses were supported. The results indicated that increasing the motivation to evaluate an advertised brand has no effect on brand cognitions, but it increases the impact of brand attitudes on purchase intentions by directly strengthening the attitude-intention relation and increasing brand attitudes.

Droge (1989) suggested that the attitude toward an ad operates as a peripheral route. Droge's modeling of the impact of the attitude toward the ad provided results consistent with that explanation.

The Combined Influence Hypothesis of Attitude toward the Ad. Several studies; such as MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch (1986), Droge (1989), Yi (1990), MacKenzie and Spreng (1992) and Brown and Stayman (1992); supported the assertion that consumers' attitudes toward ads operate as a peripheral route. However, other studies; such as Burton and Lichenstein (1988), MacKenzie and Lutz (1989), Homer (1990), Miniard, Bhatla, and Rose (1990) and Mick (1992); have hinted at a substantive role of central-route processing in attitudes toward ads.

Muehling and Laczniak (1988) examined the moderating role of involvement in the relationship of brand attitude with brand beliefs and the attitude toward ads. They found that the attitude toward ads was shown to significantly affect brand attitude, and it also affected brand beliefs for highly involved subjects. Among subjects who had low involvement, the role of beliefs faded to non-significance, although the attitude toward the ad remained significant.

They pointed out that, because subjects' attitudes toward the ad was shown to significantly affect brand attitude and purchase intention for highly involved subjects, attitudes toward ads can consist of central and peripheral components.

In contrast with the peripheral-cue hypothesis, Lord, Lee and Sauer (1995) proposed the combined-influence hypothesis. According to this hypothesis, consumer attitudes toward ads are a function of consumer response to both message arguments and peripheral cues. Their experiment followed a 2 (argument strength in the ad) x 2 (peripheral cue, the liked music versus the disliked music) x 2 (number of exposures) x 2 (involvement) treatment design. The results supported the combined-influence hypothesis. Consumer attitudes toward ads were found to be directly influenced by the consumers' responses to and evaluation of message arguments in addition to peripheral cues in the ad or program context. Consumer attitudes toward ads also exert a consistently significant direct impact on purchase intentions and an indirect influence that is mediated by brand attitudes.

Lord, Lee and Sauer (1995) called for future research to examine alternative peripheral cues including humor, vocal pattern, testimonials and mood or image in the context of the combined-effects model. The current study partially fulfills this call.

Research Hypotheses and Path Analysis Design

In this study, consumers' attitudes toward two kinds of ads, corporate reputation and brand ads, were studied. Subjects using the peripheral route associate the advocated position not with the issue itself but with secondary sources, such as an expert, an attractive source or a powerful source. Petty and Cacioppo (1982) described the peripheral route:

> Although all of these secondary techniques have been successful in producing attitude changes, the elaboration-likelihood model suggests that all of these changes will not be very permanent. Furthermore, these techniques are not likely to be very successful in changing people's attitudes when they have a lot of prior information about the issue or if the issue is very involving to them. When people have a lot of prior information about an issue and the issue has personal relevance, they will be motivated to process the issue-relevant information presented, and peripheral aspects of the persuasion situation will be less important.

A corporate reputation ad serves as a peripheral cue by providing source information while the brand ad is central. Based upon the Elaboration Likelihood Model, four hypotheses are generated.

H1. Attitude toward the brand will have a greater impact on purchase intention under high involvement conditions than under low involvement conditions.

H2. Attitude toward the corporate reputation ad will have a greater impact on attitude toward the brand ad under low involvement conditions than under high involvement conditions.

H3. Attitude toward the corporate reputation ad will have a greater impact on attitude toward the brand under low involvement conditions than under high involvement conditions.

H4. Attitude toward the corporate reputation ad will have a greater impact on purchase intention under low involvement conditions than under high involvement conditions.

In addition, the Combined Effects Model proposes that attitude toward the brand ad serves a central one. Based upon the CEM, two hypotheses are generated.

H5. Attitude toward the brand ad will be shown to exert a direct influence on purchase intention independent of the level of the involvement.

H6. Attitude toward the brand ad will be shown to exert a direct influence on attitude toward the brand independent of the level of the involvement.

The exogenous variable in this study is the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad. The endogenous variables are attitude toward the brand ad, attitude toward the brand, and the purchase intention. Both kinds of variables are measured by the response to a questionnaire.

[Insert Figure 1 about here]

For path analysis, as Figure 1 indicates, the experiment followed a 2 (involvement) x 3 (subjects' attitude toward the corporate reputation advertising) x 3 (subjects' attitude toward the brand advertising) x 3 (subjects' attitude toward the brand) x 2 (purchase intention) treatment-by-blocks design, with the first factor experimentally manipulated and the second, third, fourth, and fifth acting as blocking variables.

Methodology

Subjects. Using mall intercepts in a mid-western city, a pilot study was done in April 1998. Fifty respondents (half were men, half were women) were asked to rate the questionnaire. Respondents found several problems in the questionnaires and offered suggestions. Some changes were made based on their advice.

A total of 295 male and female students enrolled in an undergraduate course participated in the study to earn extra credit. Two different ad booklets were prepared for the study. The first contained the ads in the high involvement conditions and the second contained the ads in the low involvement conditions.

Advertisement Samples and Measures. Subjects were assigned randomly to the treatment conditions. Two ad booklets contained the same ad samples (corporate reputation ad and brand ad) and questionnaires and two different cover pages that introduced the cereal ad differed in the high and low involvement conditions. Subjects saw the corporate reputation ad first and were instructed to indicate their attitudes. Then subjects also saw the brand ad and indicated their attitudes. On the last page of the questionnaire, subjects' attitudes toward the brand, as well as purchase intentions, were measured. Upon completion of the questionnaire, subjects were thoroughly debriefed and thanked for their participation.

After collecting the data, frequencies were analyzed to determine the subjects' demographic characteristics and media and advertisement consumption. Next, t-tests were used to compare the levels of involvement. Then, multiple regression analysis was conducted to find path coefficients and path routes among the variables. Finally, two-way analysis of variance was performed to examine the research hypotheses of this study.

In order to provide a structure that integrated traditional theories and Learn-Feel-Do hierarchy models with consumer involvement and brain specialization theories, Vaughn (1980, p. 30) introduced a new Foote, Cone, and Belding approach to advertising strategy depicted in Table 2. Based on this model most food and packaged staple goods belong to the third group: Low Involvement/Thinking (Habit Formation).

[Insert Table 2 about here]

Product decisions in this group involve minimal thought and a tendency to form buying habits based on convenience. Also, consumers of food/household items have several "acceptable" brands, and brand loyalty is a function of habit. Therefore, this group has a Do-Learn-Feel pattern. This study focused specifically on print advertisements for cereal, an appropriate product to use to study consumer attitudes toward a brand and corporate reputation to examine how these factors affect purchase intention. Also, because consumers have preconceptions about special brands and corporate reputations of products, such as Kellogg's, the fictitious names (Crown for a company name) and Good Morning Mates as a brand name.

Measures developed by Lord, Lee, and Sauer (1995) were used in this study. Attitude toward the brand ad was measured by three seven-point semantic differential items anchored with good/bad, pleasant/unpleasant and favorable/unfavorable. General attitude toward the brand ad was measured by the same systems in this study. The intercorrelation among these measures was very high (average $r = 0.8092$). The same scales were used to assess the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad, which also yielded a high intercorrelation (average $r= 0.8209$). To identify the attitude toward the brand, favorability was used in a seven-point semantic differential measure.

To adjust for the possibility of response differences between intentions and estimates (Sheppard, Hartwick & Warshaw, 1988), purchase likelihood was measured with both an intention item (a ten-point semantic differential of very likely/very unlikely) and an estimation question ("probability that you will purchase this cereal," ranging from 1=0% to 10 =100%). The correlation between the two measures was 0.76.

Petty, Cacioppo, and Schuman's (1983) involvement measure was adapted to bolster the involvement manipulation for this study. Involvment was embedded in two places in the ad booklet. First, before subjects were asked their attitudes toward ads and the brand, two different groups of subjects saw two different cover pages respectively, and these cover pages that introduced the cereal ad differed in the high and low involvement conditions. High involvement subjects were told that this survey and research were sponsored by the Crown Cereal Company and the Advertising Research Center of the sponsoring university. They were told the advertisement and product would soon be test-marketed in medium-sized cities throughout the Midwest, including the study site. Low involvement subjects were told that the advertisement and product were being test-marketed only on the East Coast. Thus, high involvement subjects were led to believe that the product would be available in their area in the near future, and low involvement subjects were led to believe that this cereal would not be available for purchase in their area in the foreseeable future.

Second, on the last part of the questionnaire, involvement also was assessed through the use of a seven-point semantic differential item: "while viewing the ads, I was: very involved/very uninvolved." One hundred and fifty subjects saw the cover page in high involvement conditions, and 145 subjects saw the cover page in low involvement conditions. However, twenty of the 150 subjects who saw the cover page in high involvement conditions indicated low involvement leading to exclusion of 20 questionnaires that were not under the expected involvement condition. Fourteen of the 145 subjects who saw the cover page in the low involvement condition indicated high involvement and thus were also excluded. Finally, 261 questionnaires were used for this study.

Analysis and Results

Demographics and Manipulation Checks for Involvement. A sample of 261 valid subjects was used. One hundred thirty-three (51%) of the subjects were male and 127 subjects (48.7%) were female. One hundred and fourteen subjects (43.7%) said that they read magazines two or three times a week, 133 subjects (51%) read a newspaper 1 hour or less every day or two or three times a week and 109 subjects (41.8%) watched TV more than 1 hour every day. One hundred and fifty-six subjects (59.8%) responded that they sometimes enjoy seeing advertising. Ninety-four subjects (36%) answered that they always enjoyed seeing advertising on TV, magazines and newspapers.

To measure the difference in subjects' attitudes according to the level of involvement, questions regarding their attitudes toward the corporate reputation ad, the brand ad, the brand, and purchase intention were included. Attitude scores on the corporate reputation ad and the brand ad represent the average rating of the three seven-point semantic differential scales that are anchored at bad and good, unpleasant and pleasant, and unfavorable and favorable.

Attitudes differed as a function of involvement. Subjects under high involvement (mean = 5.5) showed more positive attitudes toward the corporate reputation ad than subjects under low involvement (mean = 4.8; $t = 1.37$ d.f = 259 $p = .0001 < .05$). Subjects with low involvement (mean = 3.5929) showed more positive attitudes toward the brand ad than subjects under high involvement (mean = 3.1564; $t = -2.42$ d.f = 259 $p = .016 < .05$). Subjects with low involvement (mean =

3.7939) showed more positive attitudes toward the brand than subjects under high involvement (mean = 3.3154; t = -3.11 d.f = 230 p = .002 < .05). Subjects with low involvement (mean = 3.8702) showed more positive attitudes toward the purchase intention than subjects under high involvement (mean = 2.8154; t = -3.99 d.f = 259 p = .0001 < .05).

Interestingly, as can be seen from Q1 of Figure 2, subjects with high involvement showed more positive attitudes than did subjects under low involvement only on the corporate reputation ad. However, these results have no significance in this study because the subjects' attitudes toward ads are affected by multiple variables within the context of ad, such as the endorser, the argument and mood. For the variable of interest, different levels of involvement showed different attitudes to each question about the corporate reputation ad, the brand ad and the brand.

To verify the research hypotheses of this study, therefore, the relationships between variables will be examined in the next section.

[Insert Figure 2 about here]

Path analysis. Path analysis was employed to determine the causal effects of the research variables in this study. It is used to articulate the causal direction and causal time ordering of dependent variables in relation to each other and to the independent variables. Path analysis is useful in making explicit the rationale of conventional regression calculations. Although path analysis is not a method for discovering causes, it is an analytical technique that can be applied to a causal model formulated by researchers on the basis of knowledge and theoretical considerations.

Generally, exogenous and endogenous variables are combined in a path analysis to identify significant paths corresponding to the hypothesized relations. In Figure 3, the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad is shown as an exogenous variable. The relationships among the exogenous variables remain unspecified and are characterized by standardized partial regression coefficients. The other factors; attitude toward the brand ad, attitude toward the brand and purchase intention are considered endogenous variables because their variation is determined by other variables in the model. Therefore, exogenous variables are treated as independent factors and the endogenous variables are regarded as dependent variables.

[Insert Figure 3 about here]

Each arrow in the model bears a path coefficient that represents the direct effect of the antecedent variable on the dependent factor. In Figure 3, the path coefficient (p1) is <.05, indicating that the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad and attitude toward the brand ad are mainly due to indirect effects. The attitude toward the corporate reputation ad has a weak direct effect (-.08) on the attitude toward the brand. The direct effect of the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad on purchase intention is .115, whereas the total of indirect effects is .023 (.115 - .092). In other words, the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad has practically a more direct effect than an indirect one on purchase intention.

Therefore, the observations regarding these variables lead to the conclusion that the present model can be trimmed. The consistency of the path model can be increased by excluding the variables which have weak direct effects (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973, p. 324). The more parsimonious model is presented in Figure 4. The attitude toward the corporate reputation ad in this model, however, has no statistically significant effect on purchase intention (R Square=.0084, Signif F=.13191). The attitude toward the corporate reputation ad has to be excluded in this model.

[Insert Figure 4 about here]

As a result, a more parsimonious path model for these variables is found. Figure 4 shows causal relationships between the research variables and specifies causal ordering. In this model, the attitude toward the brand ad is an exogenous variable and the attitude toward the brand and purchase intention are considered endogenous variables. In this case, the attitude toward the brand ad affects the attitude toward the brand (path coefficient=.633) and purchase intention (path coefficient=.3423) highly. This exogenous variable has a positive relationship with the variables. Also, the attitude toward the brand affects purchase intention (path coefficient =.4848). That is, there is a positive causal relationship between two endogenous variables. This path model draws the actual path coefficients calculated from the study data. The zero-order correlations of variables from which the path coefficients were calculated are shown in Table 5.

[Insert Table 5 about here]

The path model under high involvement. The path coefficients under high involvement do not show much difference from the path coefficients (Figure 5) without controlling involvement. An exogenous variable, the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad, has weak direct effects on the other variables, including the attitude toward the brand ad (path coefficient =.019), the attitude toward the brand (path coefficient=-.118) and purchase intention (path coefficient=.07). Therefore, the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad is excluded in the more parsimonious model.

[Insert Figure 5 about here]

The more parsimonious path model is presented in Figure 6, which shows casual relationships among the research variables and specifies causal ordering. In this model, the attitude toward the brand ad is an exogenous variable and the attitude toward the brand and purchase intention are endogenous variables. In these relationships, the attitude toward the brand ad highly affects the attitude toward the brand (path coefficient=.686) and purchase intention (path coefficient=.274) is also affected by it. This exogenous variable has a positive relationship to the other variables. Also, the attitude toward the brand affects purchase intention (path coefficient=.6018). That is, there is a positive causal relationship between the two endogenous variables. The zero-order correlations of variables from which the path coefficients were calculated can be seen in Table 8.

[Insert Table 8 and Figure 6 about here]

The path model under low involvement. As an exogenous variable, the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad under low involvement has weak direct effects on the other two variables: the attitude toward the brand ad (path coefficient =.071) and the attitude toward the brand (path coefficient =.013). However, the direct effect of attitude toward the corporate reputation ad on purchase intention is .203, and the total of indirect effects is .044 (Figure 7). In other words, the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad has a more direct effect than an indirect one on purchase intention. Therefore, the path model under low involvement will be trimmed. The more parsimonious model is presented in Figure 8.

In this model, the exogenous variable, which is the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad, has no direct effect on the attitude toward the brand ad and the attitude toward the brand. But it has a direct effect on purchase intention. Therefore, this exogenous variable changes to a residual variable. "Residual variables are introduced to indicate the effect of variables not included in the model. It is assumed that a residual variable is neither correlated with other residuals nor with other variables in the system" (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973, p.309). This variable has a statistically significant direct effect on purchase intention (R Square=.0612, Signif F=.0044) but has to be excluded in this model because this variable has no direct effects on the other variables in the model.

[Insert Figure 7 about here]

The most parsimonious path model is presented in Figure 8, which shows causal relationships among the research variables. In this model, the attitude toward the brand ad is an exogenous variable and the attitude toward the brand and purchase intention are endogenous variables. In these relationships, the attitude toward the brand ad affects the attitude toward the brand (path coefficient=.539) and purchase intention (path coefficient=.401). This exogenous variable has a positive relationship with the variables. Also, the attitude toward the brand affects purchase intention (path coefficient=.331). That is, there is a positive causal relationship between the two endogenous variables. The zero-order correlations of variables from which the path coefficients were calculated can be seen in Table 11.

[Insert Table 11and Figure 8 about here]

Test of Hypotheses. In the preceding section, the path models were examined in order to find the relationships between the research variables. Using the path models and a two-way ANOVA, tests of the research hypotheses for this study is examined in this section.

The attitude toward the corporate reputation ad and the attitude toward the brand ad represent the average rating of the product on the three seven-point semantic differential scales anchored at good-bad, pleasant-unpleasant, and favorable-unfavorable. Each of these main effects must be qualified and interpreted in light of the important two-way interactions.

Hypothesis 1 states: Attitude toward the brand will have a greater impact on purchase intention under high involvement conditions than under low involvement conditions. In Table 12, involvement is shown to have a statistically significant impact on purchase intention ($F=6.110$, $df=1/255$, $p < .014$) and the attitude toward the brand also has a statistically significant impact on purchase intention ($F=60.585$, $df=2/255$, $p < .000$).

[Insert Table 12 about here]

As Figure 9 indicates, the involvement by the attitude toward the brand interaction on purchase intention, however, is not significant ($F=2.160$, $df=2/255$, Sig. of $F=.117$, $p > .05$). The path coefficients between the attitude toward the brand and purchase intention are .602 under high involvement and .331 under low involvement (See Figure 6 and 8). Therefore, hypothesis 1 is not supported. That is, the attitude toward the brand has a significant impact on purchase intention regardless of the level of the involvement.

Figure 9.

Hypothesis 2 states: Attitude toward the corporate reputation ad will have a greater impact on attitude toward the brand ad under low involvement conditions than under high involvement conditions.

In Table 13, involvement has a statistically significant impact on the attitude toward the brand ad ($F=5.44$, $df=1/255$, $p < .02$) but the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad has no significant impact on the attitude toward the brand ad ($F=.498$, $df=2/255$, Sig of $F=.609$, $p > .05$).

[Insert Table 13 about here]

As Figure 10 indicates, the involvement by the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad interaction on the attitude toward the brand ad is not significant. ($F=.627$, $df=2/255$, Sig. of $F=.535$, $p > .05$). The path coefficients between the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad and the attitude toward the brand ad are .019 under high involvement and .071 under low involvement (See Figure 5 and 7). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is not supported. That is, the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad has no significant impact on the attitude toward the brand ad regardless of the level of involvement.

[Insert Figure 10 about here]

Hypothesis 3 states: Attitude toward the corporate reputation ad will have a greater impact on attitude toward the brand under low involvement conditions than under high involvement conditions.

In Table 14, involvement has a statistically significant impact on the attitude toward the brand ($F=6.78$, $df=1/255$, $p < .01$), but the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad has no significant impact on the attitude toward the brand ($F=.769$, $df=2/255$, Sig of $F=.465$, $p > .05$).

[Insert Table 14 about here]

As Figure 11 indicates, an involvement by the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad interaction on the attitude toward the brand is not significant ($F=.641$, $df=2/255$, Sig. of $F=.528$, $p > .05$). The path coefficients between the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad and the attitude toward the brand are -.118 under high involvement and .013 under low involvement (See Figure 5 and 7). Therefore, hypothesis 3 is not supported. That is, the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad has no significant impact on the attitude toward the brand regardless the level of the involvement.

[Insert Figure 11 about here]

Hypothesis 4 states: Attitude toward the corporate reputation ad will have a greater impact on purchase intention under low involvement conditions than under high involvement conditions.

As shown in Table 15, involvement has a statistically significant impact on purchase intention ($F=10.272$, $df=1/255$, $p < .002$) and the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad also has a significant impact on purchase intention ($F=3.607$, $df=2/255$, $p < .029$).

[Insert Table 15 about here]

As Figure 12 indicates, the involvement by the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad interaction on purchase intention is statistically significant ($F=3.335$, $df=2/255$, $p < .037$). The path coefficients between the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad and purchase intention are .07 under high involvement and .247 under low involvement (See Figures 5 and 7). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is supported. That is, the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad has a greater impact on purchase intention under low involvement conditions compared to high involvement conditions.

[Insert Figure 12 about here]

Hypothesis 5 states: The attitude toward the brand ad will be shown to exert a direct influence on purchase intention independent of the level of the involvement. As shown in Table 16, involvement has a statistically significant impact on purchase intention ($F=5.609$, $df=1/255$, $p < .019$) and the attitude toward the brand ad also has a significant impact on purchase intention ($F=39.288$, $df=2/255$, $p < .000$).

[Insert Table 16 about here]

As Figure 13 indicates, the involvement by the attitude toward the brand ad interaction on purchase intention, however, is not statistically significant (F=2.463, df=2/255, Sig. of F=.087, p > .05). The path coefficients between the attitude toward the brand and purchase intention are .274 under high involvement and .401 under low involvement (See Figures 7 and 9). Therefore, hypothesis 5 is supported. That is, the attitude toward the brand ad has a significant impact on purchase intention regardless of the level of the involvement.

[Insert Figure 13 about here]

Hypothesis 6 states: The attitude toward the brand ad will be shown to exert a direct influence on attitude toward the brand independent of the level of the involvement.

In Table 17, the attitude toward the brand ad has a statistically significant impact on purchase intention (F=80.814, df=2/255, p < .0001) and involvement has a statistically significant impact on purchase intention (F=6.253, df=1/255, p < .014).

[Insert Table 17 about here]

As Figure 14 indicates, the involvement by the attitude toward the brand ad interaction on the attitude toward the brand, however, is not significant (F=2.75, df=2/255, Sig. of F=.058, p > .05). The path coefficients between the attitude toward the brand ad and the attitude toward the brand are .686 under high involvement and .539 under low involvement (See Figure 6 and 8). Therefore, hypothesis 6 is supported. That is, the attitude toward the brand ad has a significant impact on the attitude toward the brand regardless the level of the involvement.

[Insert Figure 14 about here]

Conclusion

Implications of the study. The purpose of this study was to verify hypotheses based on the Elaboration Likelihood Model and the Combined-Effects Model by taking several central and peripheral routes such as the attitude toward the brand, the attitude toward the brand ad, and the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad, all of which can influence consumers' purchase intentions.

Currently, much of corporate advertising plays an important role in the promotion of a company's products and services. Many researchers disagree about whether consumers' attitude toward ads has a consistently significant direct impact on purchase intention. These are reasons why the above three variables were chosen as the independent variables for this study.

The application of the Elaboration Likelihood Model in this study was not found perfectly appropriate in measuring the effects of advertisements on purchase intention. Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 which were based on the Elaboration Likelihood Model were not supported. That is, the attitude toward the brand had a significant impact on purchase intention regardless of the level of involvement, and the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad had no significant impact on the attitude toward the brand ad and the brand, again regardless of the level of involvement.

However, hypothesis 4 was supported. That is, the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad had a greater impact on purchase intention under low involvement conditions than under high involvement conditions. In addition, under low involvement, consumer's attitude toward the corporate reputation ad had a statistically significant direct effect on purchase intention.

This evidence indicates that strategic use of corporate advertising as a means of managing reputation could not only strengthen consumers' image of the organizations, but may also have a direct impact on corporate bottom-line performance under certain conditions. Subjects who are perhaps unmotivated and/or unable to cognitively process the content of a persuasive message seem to rely more heavily on reputation information when making a purchasing decision. Results of this study show the direct, main effect a reputational factor can have on a behavioral intention measure, bearing out platitudes about bottom-line importance of reputation management. This direct effect of reputation on purchase intention supports a study by Lyon and Cameron (1999) that found subjects were generally more likely to invest in and hold more favorable attitudes about companies with a good reputation over companies with a bad reputation. The results of this study, however, help better define the circumstances and conditions under which subjects will use reputation information in a consumer, decision-making scenario. This information can help corporations attempting to harmonize their brand and corporate images and then bring their perceived images into harmony with those of all relevant populations, by more accurately defining those populations (Haedrich, 1993).

According to the results, two hypotheses based on the combined effects model were supported. In other words, the attitude toward the brand ad has a significant impact on the attitude toward the brand and purchase intention regardless of the level of involvement.

Finally, the results of this study indicate that the attitudes toward the brand ad are shown to exert a consistently significant direct impact on purchase intention in addition to its indirect influence as mediated by the attitude toward the brand, regardless of the level of involvement. The attitude toward the corporate reputation ad, however, was shown to exert no consistently significant direct impact on the attitude toward the brand, regardless of its indirect influence mediated by the attitude toward the brand ad, or the level of involvement. Although the attitude toward the corporate reputation ad had no indirect impact in mediating the effects of attitude toward the brand and the brand ad on purchase intention, it had a direct impact on purchase intention under low involvement conditions rather than under high involvement conditions.

Limitations and Suggestions. Additional research is needed to replicate and expand upon these findings. In this study, the corporate reputation ad, functioning as a peripheral cue, had significant effects such as a direct impact on purchase intention under low involvement conditions that should be tested under other conditions to build upon the results of this study because subjects were affected by various factors, including stories, pictures and testimonials, within the context of each ad. Also, additional studies on relations between consumers' attitudes toward corporations based on reputation and purchase intention are necessary.

Finally, the combined-influence hypothesis toward the brand ad is supported in this study. Conceptual and empirical research is encouraged to examine the implications of the Combined Effects Model and its relationship to reputation research and integrated communication campaign efforts.

Table 1. A Summary of Public Response Studies (In chronological order by category) (Corporate Image)
(Schumann, D.W.., Hathcote, J.M., and West, S. 1991, p.44)

Author	Company /Date	Purpose	Methodology	Results
Winters, L.	Chevron 1977	To overcome negative feelings towards the oil industry and Chevron	Employed dinosaur animation campaign	Overcame hostility towards the industry and Chevron
Staff public Relations Journal	TRW 1979	To establish public identity	Experimental design involving 10 major markets and a control	Corporate reputation ranked good to excellent in 40% - 60% of target market
Zetti, E.	ITT 1983	To explain company's diverse mission	Awareness test	Awareness rose 65% Three-fourths of target market
Cooper, W	Chessie and Seaboard Railroad 1985	To track recognition factor	Changes in investor's awareness	Recognition factor increased from 17% to 47% (1981 - 1984)
Maier, K.	PPG industries 1985	To promote corporate identity and boost image	Survey	significant improvement on measures of recall of and attitude toward company
Selwitz, R	Beatrice 1985	To promote corporate name	Experimental design involving before and after surveys	After promotion recognition increased by 6 times
Hartigan and Finch	GTE 1986	To inform public of solution strategy		Enhanced perception
Staff Nat-ionalUnder-writer	Insurance Information Institute 1987	To improve image of insurance industry	Before and after focus group interviews	Campaign considered effective
Winters, L.	Chevron 1988	To overcome negative feelings among a subset of the population (VALS:"innerdirecteds")	Telephone survey to assess campaign effectiveness	Positively altered attitudes and purchasing behavior

Table 2. How Advertising Works: Planning Model (Vaughn 1980, p. 30)

	Thinking	Feeling
High Involvement	**1.INFORMATIVE(THINKER)** Car-House-Furnishings-New Products Model: Learn-Feel-Do (Economic?) **(Possible Implications)** Test: Recall, Diagnostics Media: Long Copy FormatReflective Vehicles Creative: Specific Information Demonstration	**2. AFFECTIVE(FEELER)** Jewelry-Cosmetics-Fashion apparelMotorcycles Model: Feel-Learn-Do (Psychological?) **(Possible Implications)** Test: Attitude Change, Emotion Arousal Media: Large Space, Image Specials Creative: Executional Impact
Low Involvement	**3. HABIT FORMATION (DOER)** Food-Household Items Model: Do-Learn-Feel (Responsive?) **(Possible Implications)** Test: Sales Media: Small Space Ads, 10 Second I.D.'s Radio; POS Creative: Reminder	**4. SELF-SATISFACTION (REACTOR)** Cigarettes-Liquor-Candy Model: Do-Feel-Learn (Social?) **(Possible Implications)** Test: Sales Media: Billboards, Newspapers, POS Creative: Attention

Table 3. Regression model analysis on purchase intention for Figure 3.

Variable	B	Path Coefficient	Sig T	R Square	Adj. R Squared
Attitude toward the Brand	.8691	.5000	.0000	.4919	.4899
Attitude toward the Brand Ad	.5057	.3295	.0000	.5622	.5588
Attitude toward the Corporate Reputation Ad	.2021	.1151	.0052	.5753	.5703
Signif F= .000					

Table 4. Regression model analysis on purchase intention for Figure 4.

Variable	B	Path Coefficient (Beta)	Sig T
Attitude toward the Brand	.8422	.4848	.0000
Attitude toward the Brand Ad	.5253	.3423	.0000
Multiple R=.7498 R Square=.5622 Adjusted R Squared=.5588 Signif F=.000			
Attitude toward the Corporate Reputation Ad	.1610	.0918	.1391
Multiple R=.0918 R Square=.0084 Adjusted R Squared=.0046 Signif F=.13191			

Table 5. Correlation Matrix of Variables in Path Models for Figure 4.

	Attitude toward the Brand Ad	Attitude toward the Brand	Purchase Intention
Attitude toward the Brand Ad	1.000		
Attitude toward the Brand	.633	1.000	
Purchase Intention	.649	.701	1.000

Table 6. Regression model analysis on purchase intention for Figure 5.

Variable	B	Path Coefficient	Sig T	RSquare	Adj. R Squared
Attitude toward the Brand	.9253	.602	.0000	.6241	.6212
Attitude toward the Brand Ad	.4160	.2741	.0000	.6638	.6585
Signif F= .000					

Table 7. Regression model analysis on purchase intention for Figure 6.

Variable	B	Path Coefficient (Beta)	Sig T
Attitude toward the Brand	.9253	.6018	.0000
Attitude toward the Brand Ad	.4160	.2741	.0002
Multiple R=.8148 R Square=.6638 Adjusted R Squared=.6585 Signif F=.000			

Table 8. Correlation Matrix of Variables in Path Models for Figure 6.

	Attitude toward the Brand Ad	Attitude toward the Brand	Purchase Intention
Attitude toward the Brand Ad	1.000		
Attitude toward the Brand	.686	1.000	
Purchase Intention	.687	.790	1.000

Table 9. Regression model analysis on purchase intention for Figure 7.

Variable	B	Path Coefficient	Sig T	R Square	Adj. R Squared
Attitude toward the Brand Ad	.5826	.388	.0000	.3360	.3308
Attitude toward the Brand	.6671	.327	.0000	.4139	.4048
Attitude toward the Corporate Reputation Ad	.3622	.203	.0025	.4549	.4420
Signif F= .000					

Table 10. Regression model analysis on purchase intention for Figure 8.

Variable	B	Path Coefficient (Beta)	Sig T
Attitude toward the Brand	.6746	.3313	.0001
Attitude toward the Brand Ad	.6013	.4011	.0000
Multiple R=.6434 R Square=.4139 Adjusted R Squared=.4048 Signif F=.000			
Attitude toward the Corporate Reputation Ad	.4418	.2474	.0044
Multiple R=.2474 R Square=.0612 Adjusted R Squared=.0539 Signif F=.0044			

Table 11. Correlation Matrix of Variables in Path Models for Figure 8.

	Attitude toward the Brand Ad	Attitude toward the Brand	Purchase Intention
Attitude toward the Brand Ad	1.000		
Attitude toward the Brand	.539	1.000	
Purchase Intention	.580	.547	1.000

Table 12. Test for H1. Means for each experimental cell on the purchase intention (The central route)

		High Involvement	Low Involvement
The attitude	Negative	1.10 (70)	1.44 (43)
Toward	Neutral	1.36 (36)	1.60 (55)
The brand	Positive	2.50 (24)	2.39 (33)

Table 13. Test for H2. Means for each experimental cell on the attitude toward the brand ad (The peripheral route)

		High Involvement	Low Involvement
The attitude	Negative	1.25 (8)	1.81(32)
Toward the	Neutral	1.83 (12)	1.82(11)
Corporate reputation ad	Positive	1.51 (110)	1.77(88)

Table 14. Test for H3. Means for each experimental cell on the attitude toward the brand (The peripheral route)

		High Involvement	Low Involvement
The attitude	Negative	1.50 (8)	2.06 (32)
Toward the	Neutral	1.75 (12)	2.09 (11)
Corporate reputation ad	Positive	1.65 (110)	1.85 (88)

Table 15. Test for H4. Means for each experimental cell on the purchase intention (The peripheral route)

		High Involvement	Low Involvement
The attitude	Negative	1.05 (21)	1.64 (28)
Toward the	Neutral	1.53 (38)	1.39 (23)
Corporate reputation ad	Positive	1.49 (71)	1.89 (80)

Note: Each cell population is in parentheses.

Table 16. Test for H5. Means for each experimental cell on the purchase intention

		High Involvement	Low Involvement
The attitude	Negative	1.17 (92)	1.49 (75)
Toward	Neutral	1.25 (8)	1.67 (9)
The brand ad	Positive	2.27 (30)	2.17 (47)

Table 17. Test for H6. Means for each experimental cell on the attitude toward the brand

		High Involvement	Low Involvement
The attitude	Negative	1.52 (92)	1.61 (75)
Toward	Neutral	1.75 (8)	1.67 (9)
The brand ad	Positive	2.63 (30)	2.47 (47)

Table 18. Two-way ANOVA table for H1

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	58.977	3	19.659	45.454	.000
The attitude toward the brand	52.407	2	26.203	60.585	.000
Involvement	2.643	1	2.643	6.110	.014
2-way Interaction	1.868	2	.934	2.160	.117
Explained	60.845	5	12.169	28.136	.117
Residual	110.289	255	.433		
Total	171.134	260	.658		

Table 19. Two-way ANOVA table for H2

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	5.326	3	1.775	2.191	.090
The attitude toward the corporate reputation ad	.806	2	.403	.498	.609
Involvement	4.408	1	4.408	5.440	.020
2-way Interaction	1.016	2	.508	.627	.535
Explained	6.342	5	1.268	1.565	.170
Residual	206.623	255	.810		
Total	212.966	260	.819		

Table 20. Two-way ANOVA table for H3

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	5.937	3	1.979	3.336	.020
The attitude toward the corporate reputation ad	.913	2	.456	.769	.465
Involvement	4.022	1	4.022	6.780	.010
2-way Interaction	.761	2	.380	.641	.528
Explained	6.698	5	1.340	2.258	.049
Residual	151.286	255	.593		
Total	157.985	260	.608		

Table 21. Two-way ANOVA table for H4

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	10.985	3	3.662	5.983	.001
The attitude toward the corporate reputation ad	4.415	2	2.208	3.607	.029
Involvement	6.286	1	6.286	10.272	.002
2-way Interaction	4.082	2	2.041	3.335	.037
Explained	15.067	5	3.013	4.924	.000
Residual	156.067	255	.612		
Total	171.134	260	.658		

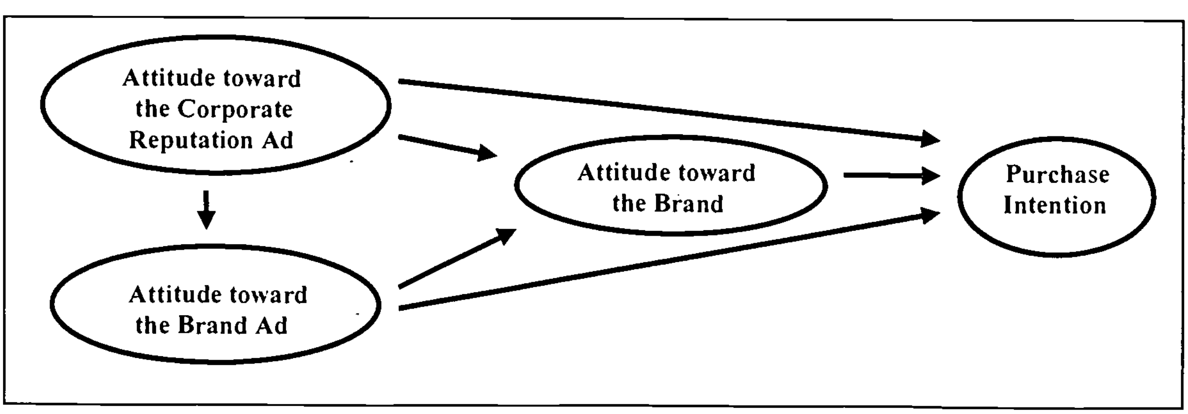
Table 22. Two-way ANOVA table for H5

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	44.771	3	14.924	30.697	.000
The attitude toward the brand ad	38.200	2	19.100	39.288	.000
Involvement	2.727	1	2.727	5.609	.019
2-way Interaction	2.395	2	1.197	2.463	.087
Explained	47.165	5	9.433	19.403	.000
Residual	123.969	255	.486		
Total	171.134	260	.658		

Table 23. Two-way ANOVA table for H6

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	63.220	3	21.073	58.528	.000
The attitude toward the brand ad	58.195	2	29.098	80.814	.000
Involvement	2.251	1	2.251	6.253	.014
2-way Interaction	1.980	2	.990	2.750	.058
Explained	65.20	5	13.04	36.222	.000
Residual	91.814	255	.360		
Total	157.014	260	.603		

Figure 1. Test Model



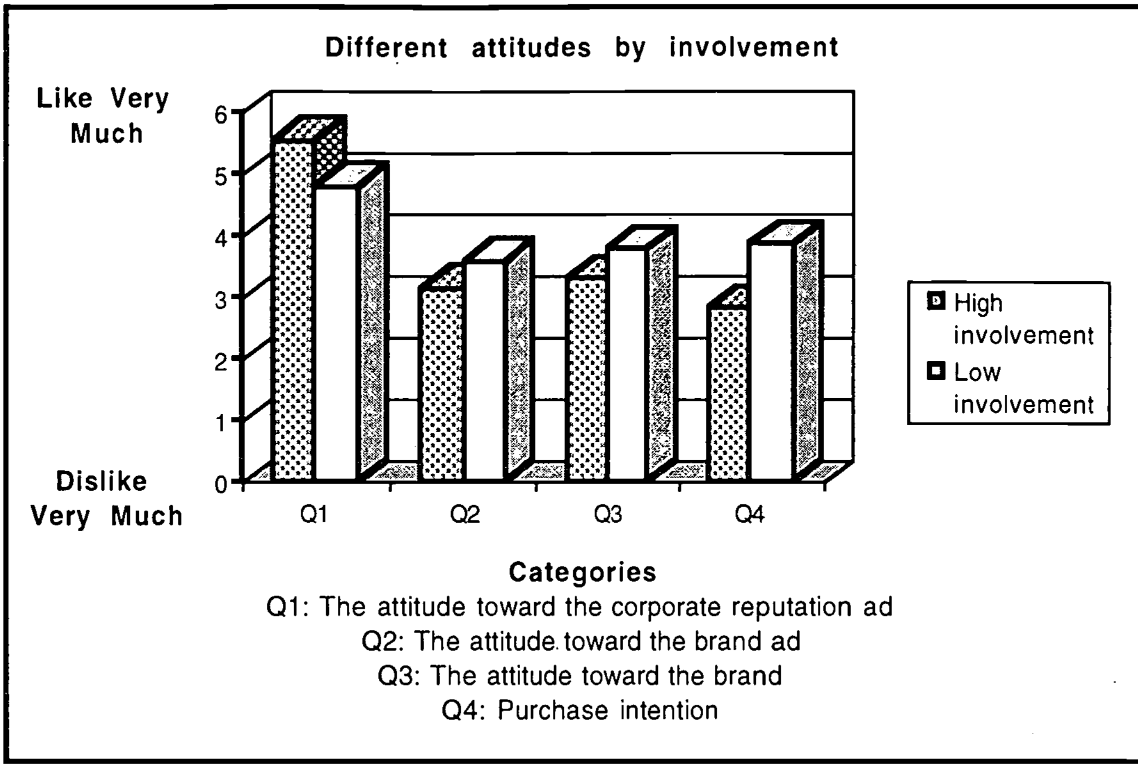
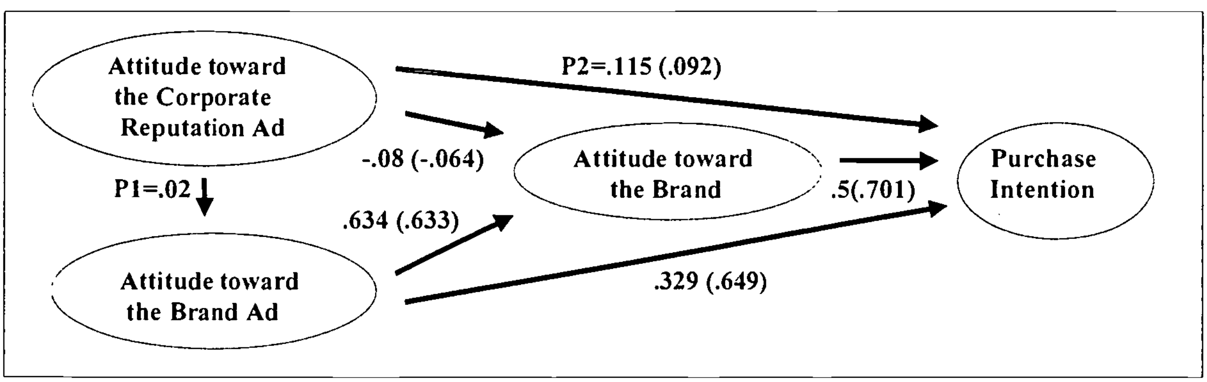


Figure 2.

Figure 3. The path model based on the research design



Numbers in parentheses indicate zero-order correlation. Other numbers are path coefficients.

Figure 4. The more parsimonious path model (Numbers indicate Path Coefficient.)

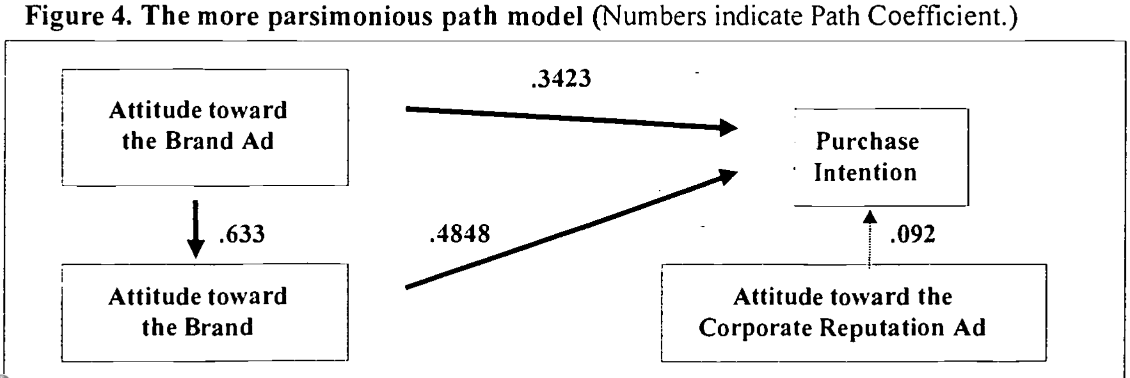
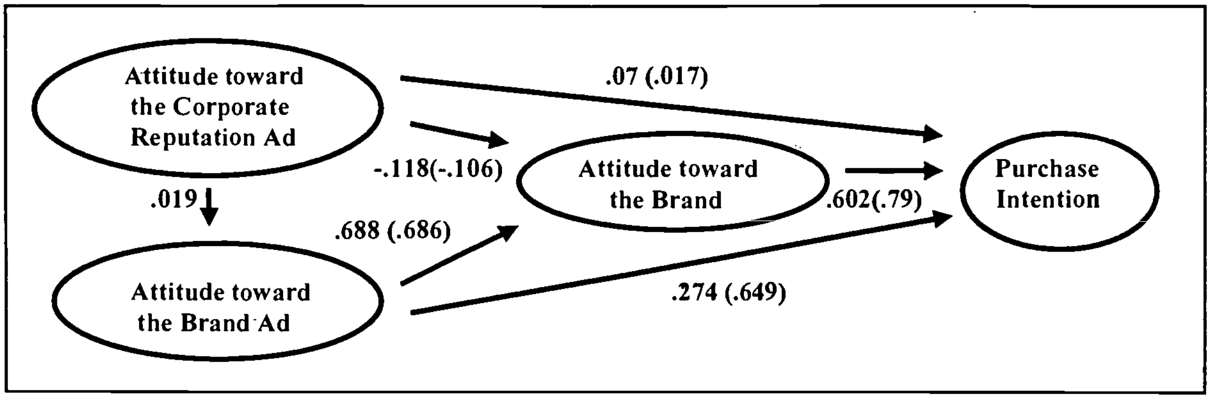
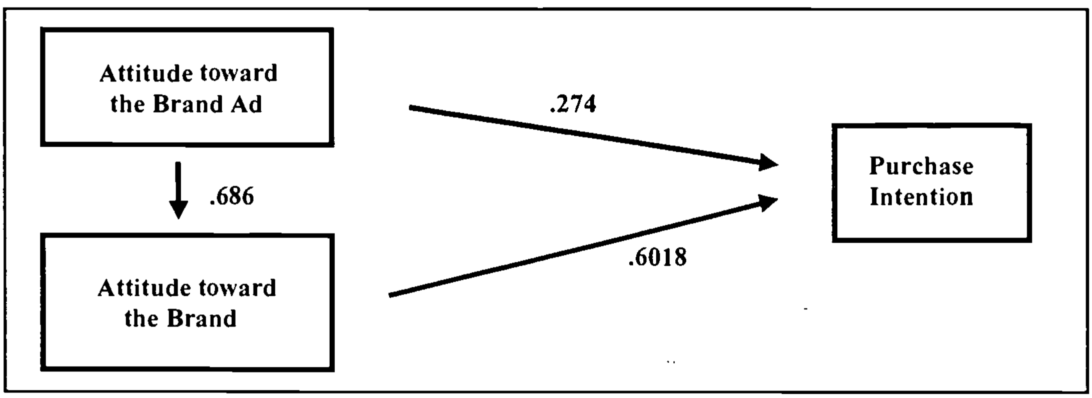


Figure 5. The path model under high involvement



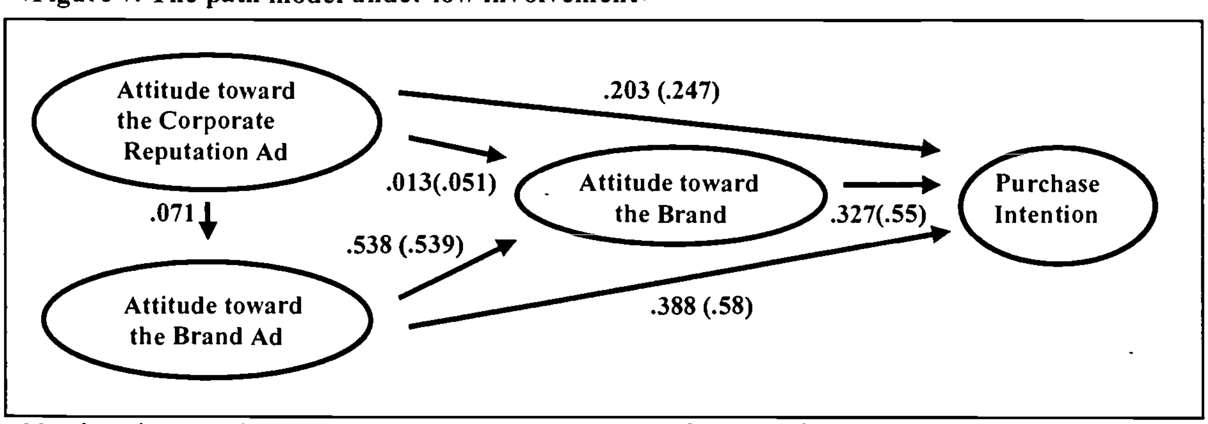
Numbers in parentheses indicate zero-order correlation. Other numbers are path coefficients.

Figure 6. The more parsimonious path model under high involvement



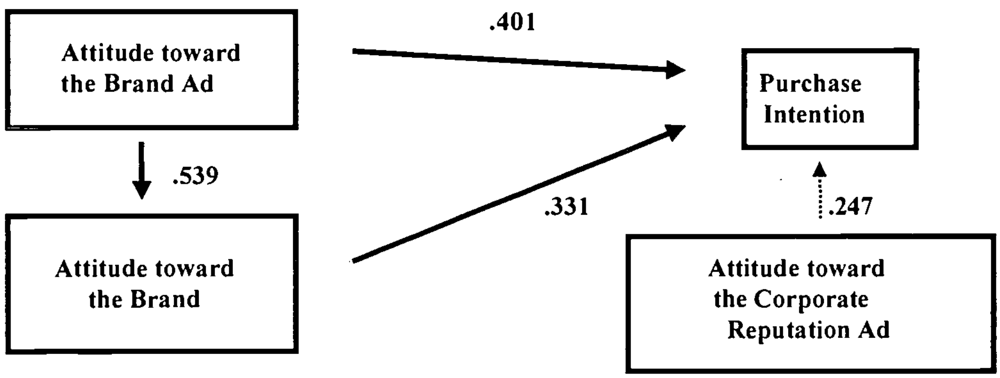
Numbers indicate path coefficients, all paths shown are statistically significant (p <.05)

Figure 7. The path model under low involvement



Numbers in parentheses indicate zero-order correlation. Other numbers are path coefficients.

Figure 8. The more parsimonious path model under low involvement



Numbers indicate Path Coefficient.

Figure 9.

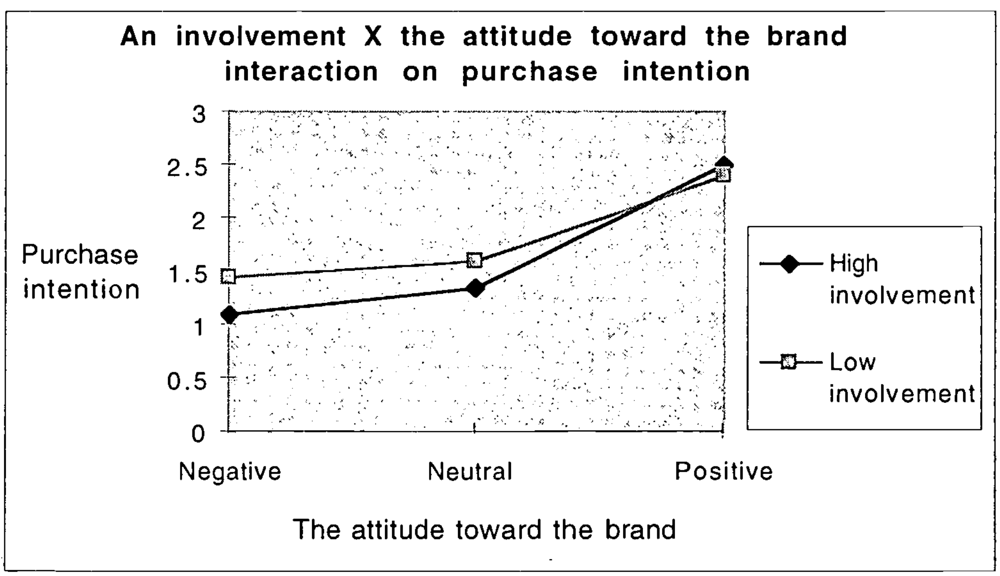


Figure 10.

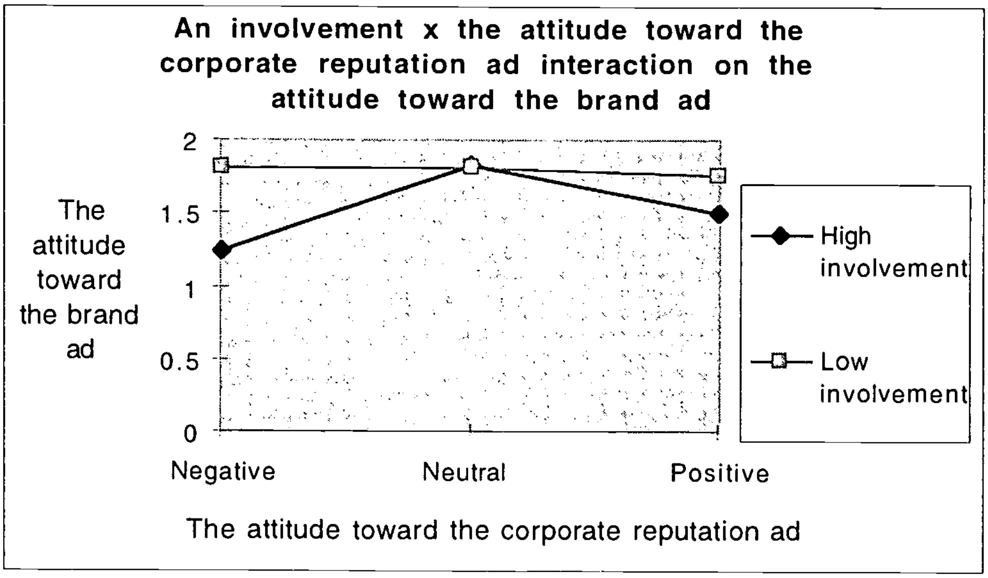


Figure 11.

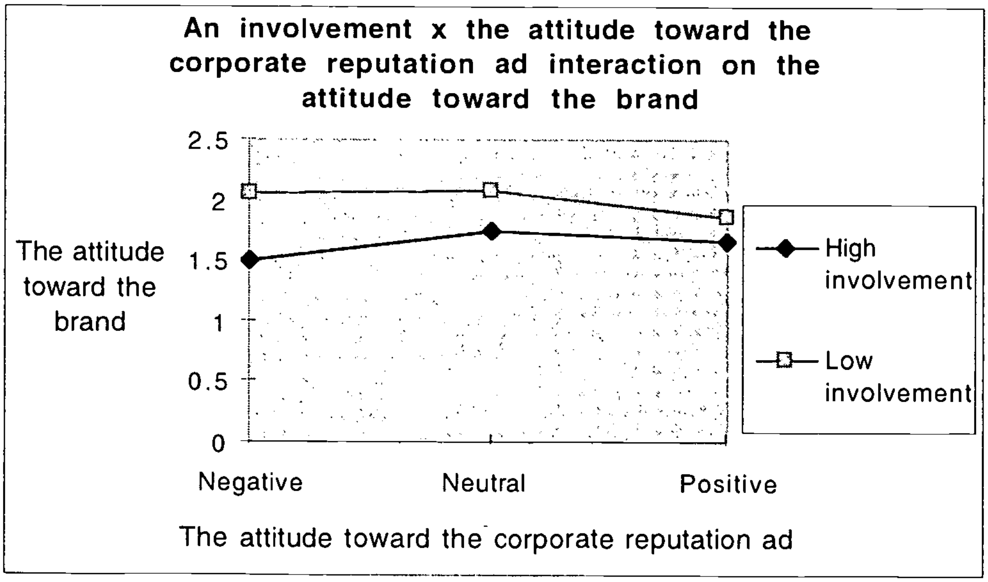


Figure 12.

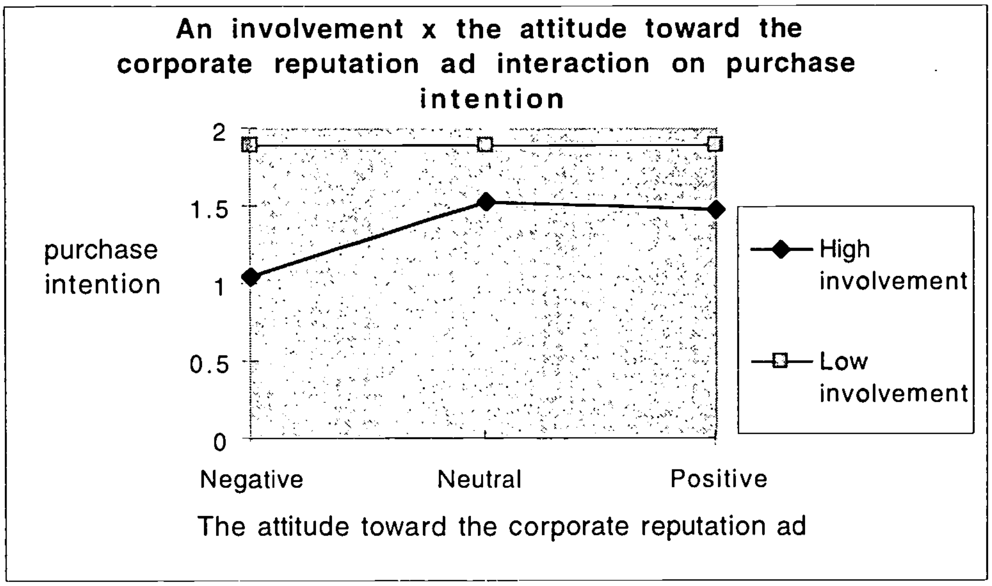


Figure 13.

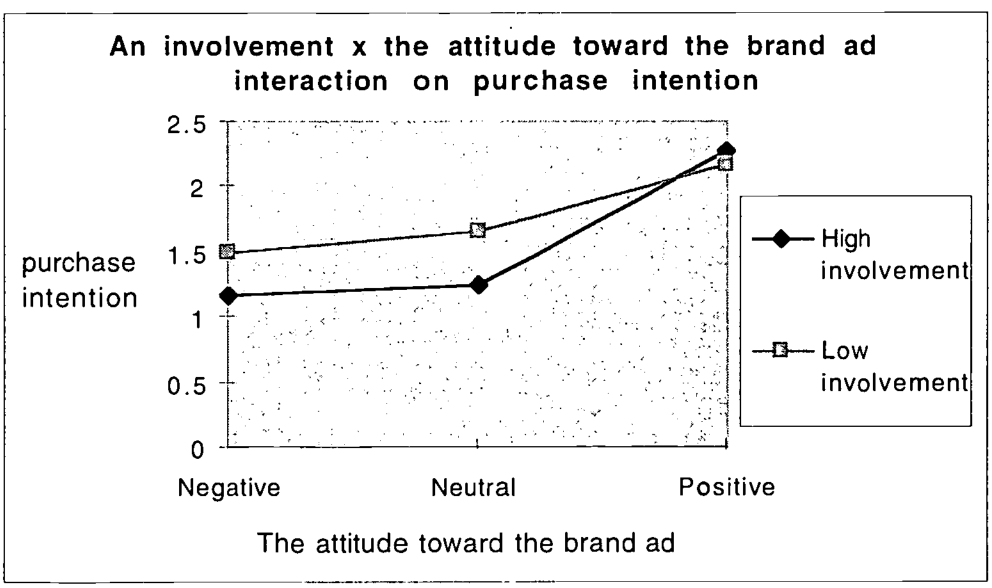
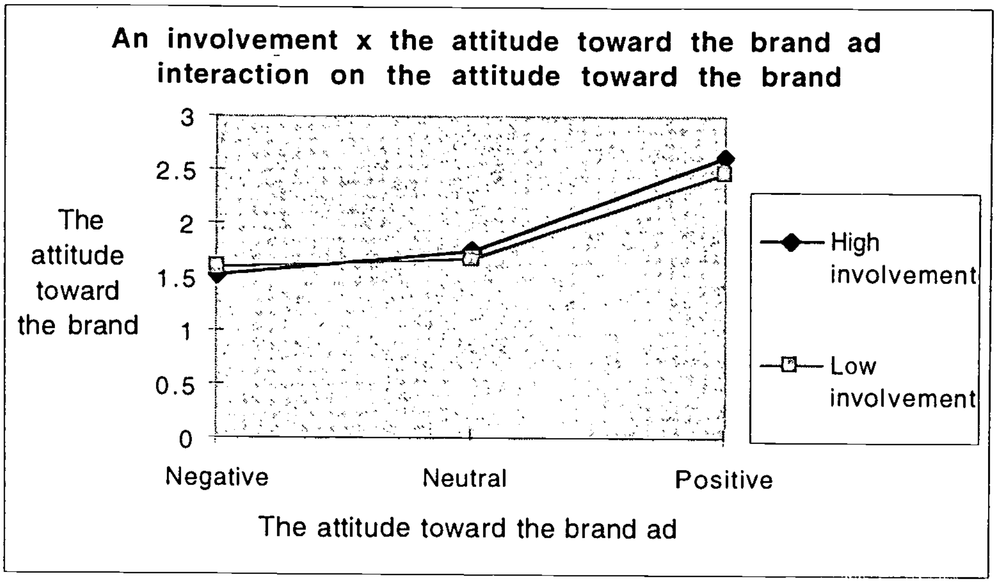


Figure 14.


An involvement x the attitude toward the brand ad interaction on the attitude toward the brand
The attitude toward the brand
3
2.5
2
1.5
1
0.5
0
Negative
Neutral
Positive
The attitude toward the brand ad
High involvement
Low involvement

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